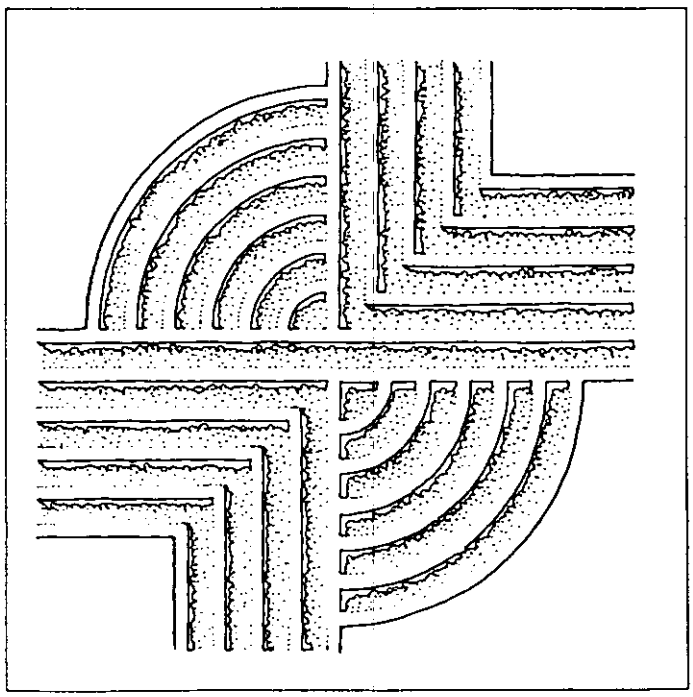
INTENSIVE ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF THE PROPOSED BEAUFORT HIGH SCHOOL SITE, LADY'S ISLAND, BEAUFORT COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA



CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 210

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ABSTRACT

This report provides information on an intensive archaeological survey the proposed Beaufort High School site on Lady's Island at the intersection of Meridian Road (S-36) and Youmans Road. The study was conducted at the request of the Beaufort County School District in compliance with the Beaufort County Archaeological and Historic Impact Assessment Ordinance requiring an assessment of development tracts. The work was coordinated through Mr. Didier Nobels with GMK Associates of Columbia, South Carolina.

The proposed school site includes about 40.8 acres set slightly back from the marshes of the Beaufort River to the west and Factory Creek to the north. The most distinctive feature of the site is the irregularly shaped depression which encompasses the central half to two-thirds of the property. In the recent past the tract is reported to have been used as a pig farm, which is confirmed by the presence of numerous fence lines, pens, and a slaughter area. In addition, there is some evidence of erosion, probably the result of pigs rooting in the ground. Today the area is wooded with a moderate growth of hardwoods and pines, with a light understory.

The only historical background collected at this survey stage is that provided by Chicora's previous cartographic survey of Beaufort County and a review of secondary literature. The cartographic survey identifies several maps reporting the location of Whitehall, a major antebellum plantation settlement, just southwest of the survey tract, fronting the marshes of the Beaufort River.

Given the low surface visibility of the tract, a simple pedestrian survey was not possible. As a result 169 shovel tests were excavated using transects spaced 100 feet apart, with screened shovel tests every 100 feet along these transects. Where open ground was present, surface data was also collected. Since the entire tract was evaluated to have a high archaeological potential, no areas were excluded from this initial assessment.

As a result of the study three archaeological sites were identified. Site 38BU1686, found on the northeastern edge of the tract, was tested with the excavation of 12 shovel tests at 50 foot intervals. It consists of a surface scatter and was found in four positive shovel tests. The site was evaluated as a scatter of prehistoric material, largely destroyed by recent clearing operations and construction on an adjacent tract, as well as the remains of a late nineteenth-early twentieth century structure. This site has been heavily impacted and no intact remains could be found. It is recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

Site 38BU1687 was found on the southwest corner of the study tract. Found initially in a regular transect shovel test, it was explored by five additional shovel tests, only one of which was positive. The site consists of a small collection of nineteenth century material which may extend off the tract to the south, southeast, or east. It may represent some component of the Whitehall Plantation, but the remains present on the school site do not warrant any additional investigation and are recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register.

Site 38BU1688 consists of a landscape feature — a dike with associated ditch running northeast-southwest across the tract, stopping at the edge of the central depression on the property. This feature is probably related to nineteenth century agricultural activities and no artifacts were collected. While it provides important information concerning land use during that time period, it is recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register.

We recommend no additional archaeological investigations on the survey tract. Nevertheless, there is always the possibility that archaeological remains are encountered during construction and we recommend that should construction crews encounter bricks, tabby, pottery, bottles, or other archaeological remains that the work be suspended until the finds can be examined by a professional archaeologist.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

INTRODUCTION

Background and the Site Area

The Beaufort High School tract is situated on Lady's Island, about a mile southeast of the City of Beaufort (Figure 1). The 40.8 acre tract is bounded to the south by Youmans Drive, to the west by Meridian Road (S-36), to the north by private landholdings, and to the east by a portion of Youmans Drive and a dirt road (Figure 2).

The site tract is covered in pine and mixed hardwoods, with a light understory of herbaceous vegetation. Situated in a residential neighborhood, it is also heavily impacted by recent development activities. Portions of the tract evidence rather heavy accumulations of recent garbage, while other portions have been impacted by construction or development on adjacent parcels.

Chicora Foundation was contacted by Mr. Didier Nobels with GMK Associates on November 14, 1996. Representing the Beaufort School District, he requested a proposal for both a reconnaissance and an intensive level archaeological survey of the ca. 40 acre high school tract. This study was requested in compliance with the Beaufort County Archaeological and Historic Impact Assessment Ordinance. We understood from our discussions with Mr. Nobels that the Beaufort County Planning Office had recommended a survey based both on Chicora Foundation's previous cartographic survey (Hacker and Trinkley 1992) and also on the report by Dr. Larry Rowland that a tabby block or foundation was found in this general area.

Chicora responded to Mr. Nobel's RFP with a proposal on November 14. While the Beaufort ordinance requires only an initial reconnaissance level survey, Mr. Nobels and the School District understood that if the initial reconnaissance identified any remains that a more intensive study would likely be necessary. Since this particular tract is one of the few which met all of the multiple requirements of the school district, a decision was made to go directly into an intensive survey of the tract, using methods which would satisfy the South Carolina State Historic Preservation Office's *Guidelines and Standards for Archaeological Investigations.*

Consequently, on January 15, 1997 the Beaufort School District issued Chicora a purchase order for an intensive survey of the Beaufort High School tract. The survey was delayed several weeks as we waited for the arrival of plans for the proposed site. A proposed master plan was eventually obtained from GMK and a tree and topographic survey was obtained from Beaufort Surveying. During this interval we also spoke with Mr. David Youmans of Beaufort Surveying, who has also previously searched for the posited tabby on the school site. Mr. Youmans indicated that two searches had been conducted, although neither one had been fruitful.

The intensive level investigation was conducted on February 10, 1997. Approximately 25.5 person hours were spent on-site by the Principal Investigator, Dr. Michael Trinkley, and the field crew, Mr. John Hamer and Mr. Ian Hamer. An additional 2.0 person hours were spent re-examining a portion of the tract on February 11.

The study tract has the shape of a rectangle, measuring about 1,600 feet north-south by as much as 1,300 feet east-west (see Figure 2). The cut-out on the eastern side avoids a series of lots along Meridian Road, as does the cut-out in the southeastern corner. There is another cut-out in the northeastern corner which also conforms to private land holdings. Although all of the maps for this project appear to show slightly different boundaries, those on the Beaufort Surveying Company's "Boundary, Tree, and Topo Survey" dated May 7, 1996 has been used for definitive boundaries. This is essentially identical to the "Boundary Survey Prepared for Beaufort County

Figure 1. Location of the survey tract in the Beaufort area (USGS South Carolina 1:500,000).

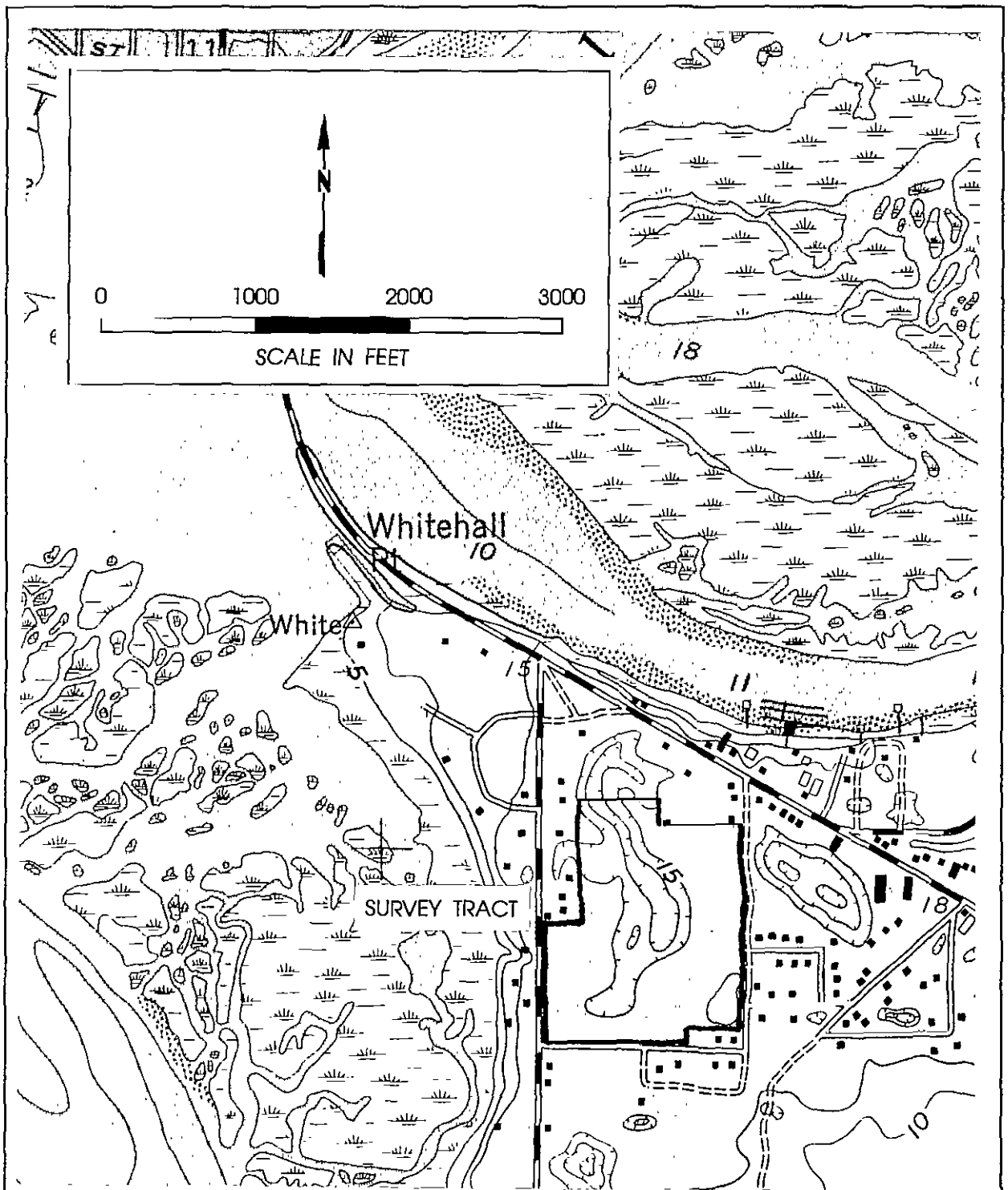

Figure 2. A portion of the USGS Beaufort topographic map showing the survey tract.

School District," dated April 2, 1996 and also prepared by Beaufort Surveying.

Although several maps show an extension of the tract northeastwardly to US 21, this extension was not surveyed since it was not shown on the Beaufort Surveying maps. In addition, this would have increased the acreage beyond the ca. 40 areas on which the RFP was based. Most importantly, this land is currently occupied and is heavily posted. We assume that this extension has been dropped from anticipated use by the School District.

The Master Plan provided by GMK also reveals an additional 11 acre tract south of the survey parcel, where a football/soccer stadium and parking is shown. This also was not included in the current survey.

Natural Setting

Although originally the entire tract was likely dominated by mixed hardwoods, particularly live oak and palmetto, today it includes a mixture of different ecological settings. Dominating the casual observer's perception of the property is a low drainage or pond which the USGS topographic map (see Figure 2) shows as an "S" shape originating north of the survey tract, winding into the parcel at its northwest corner, and terminating in the southwest corner. The more detailed survey of the parcel actually reveals this low area to consist of four distinct ponds which appear to merge together, forming the seemingly continuous slough shown on the published topographic map.

Elevations on the edges of the tract range from about 17 to 20 feet above mean sea level (AMSL). The low areas, however, exhibit elevations of 7 to 10 feet AMSL, giving the impression that, at one time, they may have drained northward, toward Factory Creek.

This is somewhat reflected in the soil survey for the area, which reveals an area of low, poorly drained Polawana loamy fine sands running southwest to northeast toward US 21 (Stuck 1980: Map 57). It does not, however, ever make contact with the creek or other low soils.

This drainage is somewhat unusual for the Beaufort area, although examination of the Beaufort USGS topographic map reveals numerous similar sloughs, ponds, or depressional areas.

These features were also of interest to Edmund Ruffin, who in 1843 made this account:

> After breakfast we crossed over the ferry (a mile wide) from Beaufort to Lady's Island, the nearest land. This is a long, crooked & narrow island, 15 miles from one extremity to the other, separated by a narrow creek from the longer island of St. Helena. At the landing [known as Whitehall] the highland presents a precipitous bluff of 9 or 10 feet high, of nothing but yellow sand below the soil. The adjacent cultivated is, in general hereabout, remarkably light, so as to be subject to much injury from being blown away by the high winds. A remarkable & unlooked for feature was in sight, which a proprietor who accompanied us [possibly Joseph Hazel] said was common throughout & peculiar to Lady's Island. There are numerous sinks, or basin shaped depressions of the land, of various sizes shapes, but mostly circular & of no great extent; & which by their number & sometimes by the steepness of their sides, are deemed serious impediments to tillage, & serve much to lessen the value of the lands (Mathew 1992:123-124).

Ruffin assumed that the sinks were created by the dissolution of a compact marl stratum below the surface, forming much like limestone sinks in the mountains. Regardless, this helps us understand that the depressions on the survey tract are natural and were probably viewed as unproductive. It seems likely, therefore, that there will be few cultural remains in the general area.

Today, the soils in this low central area of the survey tract consist of an A horizon of black (10YR2/1) loamy fine sand upwards of 1.5 feet in depth which grades into a dark gray (10YR3/1) loamy fine sand. The C horizon (reported to be a dark grayish brown sand) is typically 2.0 to 4.0 feet below the surface, so shovel testing typically terminated at the interface between the black and dark gray soil. These soils exhibit a water table at or near the surface for about four months out of the year, accounting for their reduced nature. At the time of the survey some soil areas were moist, although we did not encounter standing water.

Vegetation in these central low areas are almost exclusively widely spaced pine with an occasional small magnolia or other hardwood (Figure 3). These areas provided easy access for the survey, although because of their low nature, they were evaluated as having a very limited potential for archaeological sites.

Around the edge of the project area the soils are more level and exhibit drier, sandier soils. Stuck (1980) reveals that most of what is known as Whitehall Point consists of Wando fine sands. These soils are excessively drained, rapidly permeable, and exhibit a water table at least six feet in depth. They have an A or Ap horizon about 0.9 to 1.1 feet in depth consisting of a dark brown (10YR4/3) sand overlying a C horizon of brown (10YR5/3) sand. Although no plow ridges were detected in the woods, the soil profiles suggest that at least some portions of the tract were likely cultivated. A few areas of heavily mottled soil are possibly related to the use of the area as a hog farm earlier in the twentieth century.

Vegetation in these upland areas is considerably denser, consisting of pines and mixed hardwoods (Figure 4). Although it was possible to move through these woods, the limited sight lines made compass navigation (for the shovel test transects) difficult.

Mathews et al. (1980) suggest that the most significant ecosystem on Lady's Island is the maritime forest community. This maritime ecosystem is defined most simply as all upland areas located on barrier islands, limited on the ocean side by tidal marshes. On sea islands the distinction between the maritime forest community and an upland ecosystem (essentially found on the mainland) becomes blurred. Sandifer et al. (1980:108-109) define our subsystems, including the sand spits and bars, dunes, transition shrub, and maritime forest. Of these, only the maritime forest subsystem is likely to have been significant to either the prehistoric or historic occupants. While the subsystem is frequently characterized by the dominance of live oaks and the presence of salt spray, these are less noticeable on the sea islands than they are on the narrower barrier islands (Sandifer et al. 1980:120).

The islands may contain communities of oak-pine, oak-palmetto-pine, oak-magnolia, palmetto, or low oak woods. Often the larger islands are more mesic or xeric and tend to evidence field communities, pine-mixed hardwood communities, pine forest communities, or mixed hardwood communities (Sandifer et al. 1980:120-121, 437).

Robert Mills, discussing Beaufort District in the early nineteenth century, stated:

> besides a fine growth of pine, we have the cypress, red cedar, and live oak . . . white oak, red oak, and several other oaks, hickory, plum, palmetto, magnolia, poplar, beech, birch, ash, dogwood, black mulberry, etc. Of fruit trees we have the orange, sweet and sour, peach, nectarine, fig, cherry (Mills 1826:377).

He also cautioned, however, that "some parts of the district are beginning already to experience a want of timber, even for common purposes" (Mills 1826:383) and suggested that at least 25% of a plantation's acreage should be reserved for woods. One of the few accounts describing Lady's Island during the mid-nineteenth century comes from Whitelaw Reid, who toured the area in 1865:

> On steaming up to Beaufort we found carriages, in waiting, on the opposite side, at the upper end of

Figure 3. View of one of the "sinks" in the central portion of the project area, looking to the northeast.

Figure 4. Mixed pine and hardwood forest on the high ground edges of the survey tract. View from Meridian Road looking east.

> Lady's Island . . . . The sandy road led off among the cotton fields down the island. . . . Sometimes, for half a mile, the road passed through a splendid avenue of live-oaks, the pendulous Spanish moss, from the limbs, sweeping across our carriage tops . . . . Then the avenue faded away into a thicket of dwarf live-oaks, trespassing for several yards, each side of the road, upon the cotton fields, and mingling presently with cotton woods, bayonet plants and other like species of the palmetto, yellow pines and a clambering growth of grape-vines and honeysuckles. Through this undergrowth could still be seen the long rows of cotton stretching along on either hand out of sight (Reid 1866:96-97).

Although certainly less precise than Ruffin, Reid did accurately describe the vegetation of Lady's Island before the onslaught of recent twentieth century development.

Curation

The original and duplicate field notes, and artifacts resulting from Chicora Foundation's survey have been curated with the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, University of South Carolina, Columbia.

The artifacts from this study have been cataloged using the standard system of the Institute. They have been cleaned and/or conserved as necessary and are packed in polyethylene zip-locks for permanent curation. All records were provided to the curatorial facility on pH neutral, alkaline buffered paper. The only photographs taken during this work were a series of color prints, which because of their long-term instability are being retained in the Chicora project files and not curated.

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC SYNTHESIS

Previous Investigations

As an initial step in the background research, the South Carolina Department of Archives and History was contacted with a request that they check of their master topographic maps to locate any NRHP buildings, districts, structures, sites, or objects in the study area. In addition, we requested a check to determine the results of any structures surveys which may have been completed in the study area. Dr. Tracy Power of that agency reported that there were no recorded sites for the project area (Dr. Tracy Power, personal communication 1997). In addition, Ms. Rachel Brinson-Marrs of the Foundation staff examined the State Site Files at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology to confirm that no archaeological sites had been previously identified on the tract.

The previously conducted cartographic survey of Beaufort County (Hacker and Trinkley 1992), was also examined, with the discovery that the school tract was situated south of the Beaufort ferry, also known in the nineteenth century as Whitehall. The ferry landing and associated houses are situated abut 1,500 feet to the northwest.

Present at the southwest corner of the school site is a plantation settlement which is of special importance to our survey. At the time of the Civil War the plantation was occupied by Parsens, although just a decade or so latter it is shown as being the Robinson settlement (Hacker and Trinkley 1992:17).

An examination of these, plus several additional, maps shows the settlement, but little additional information. No settlement in this area is shown on Mills' 1826 map of the Beaufort District, although Porteus is shown immediately to the south. This may be Robert Porteous, the Beaufort merchant who played a minor role in the Nullification Crises (see Rowland et al. 1996:334). By 1862, however, a settlement is shown on the bluff edge, southwest of the school tract and the owner is shown as Parsens (Figure 5). A decade later the settlement is shown on the 1873 Stoeber Geological and Agricultural map as belonging to Robinson.

The most detailed map of the area is the 1873 U.S. Coast Chart 55, "Coast of South Carolina & Georgia From Hunting Island to Ossabaw Island" (Figure 6). While not providing any information concerning the owner, it does reveal the settlement location hugging the marsh edge at the west edge of a large agricultural field. Present are four structures which probably represent the main settlement. Slightly to the north, but still along the marsh edge, are a row of nine structures, probably representing the slave row.

The north side of the ferry road (US 21) is shown on the 1871-72 National Ocean Survey map, "St. Helena and Lady's Islands" (Figure 7). This map shows the location of the ferry house, as well as the main house shown in Figure 6, known as Orange Grove.

The somewhat later postbellum McGee's Map of St. Helena Parish (Figure 8) shows the general area, but fails to not any plantation name or reveal any settlement. This probably means that the settlement quickly disappeared after the Civil War.

Although this brief overview of the available historic maps provides only modest detail on structural locations, it does demonstrate that the plantation settlement was west and perhaps southwest of the school tract, on the opposite side of Meridian Road. It is likely situated on the wooded tract which is currently for sale. In addition, it also provides a preliminary (and provisional) chain of title, combined with clear documentation of the area's significance.

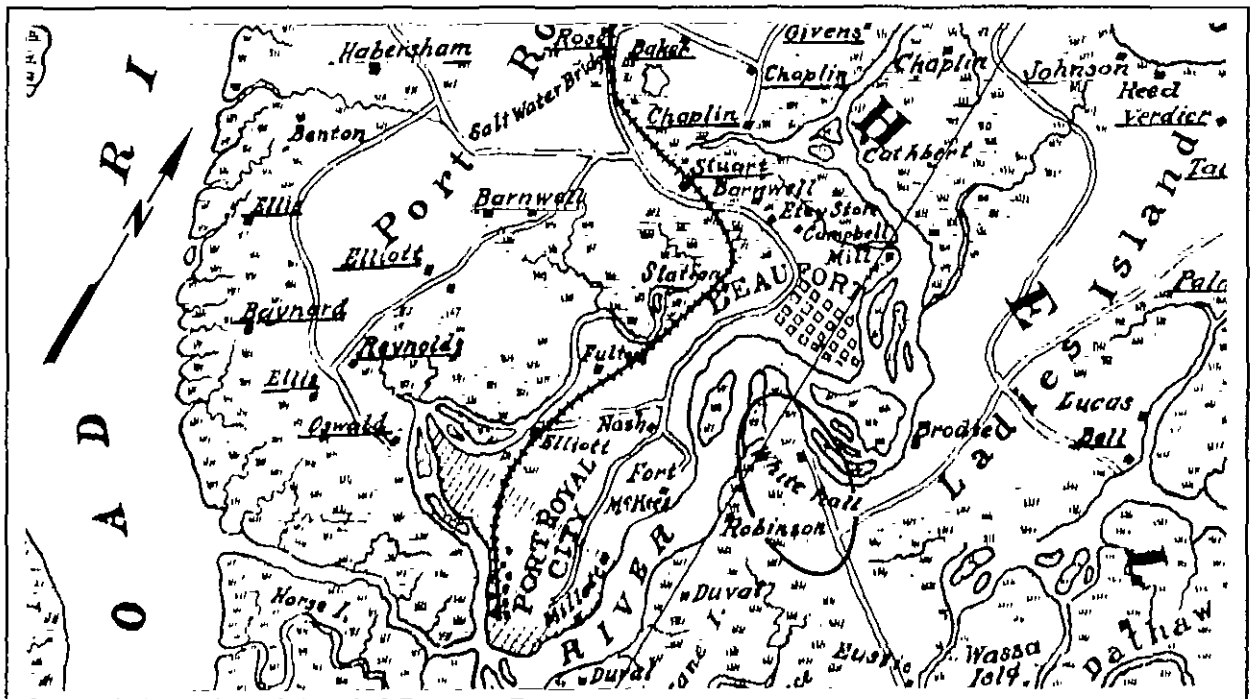

Figure 5. A portion of the 1862 Beaufort District map.

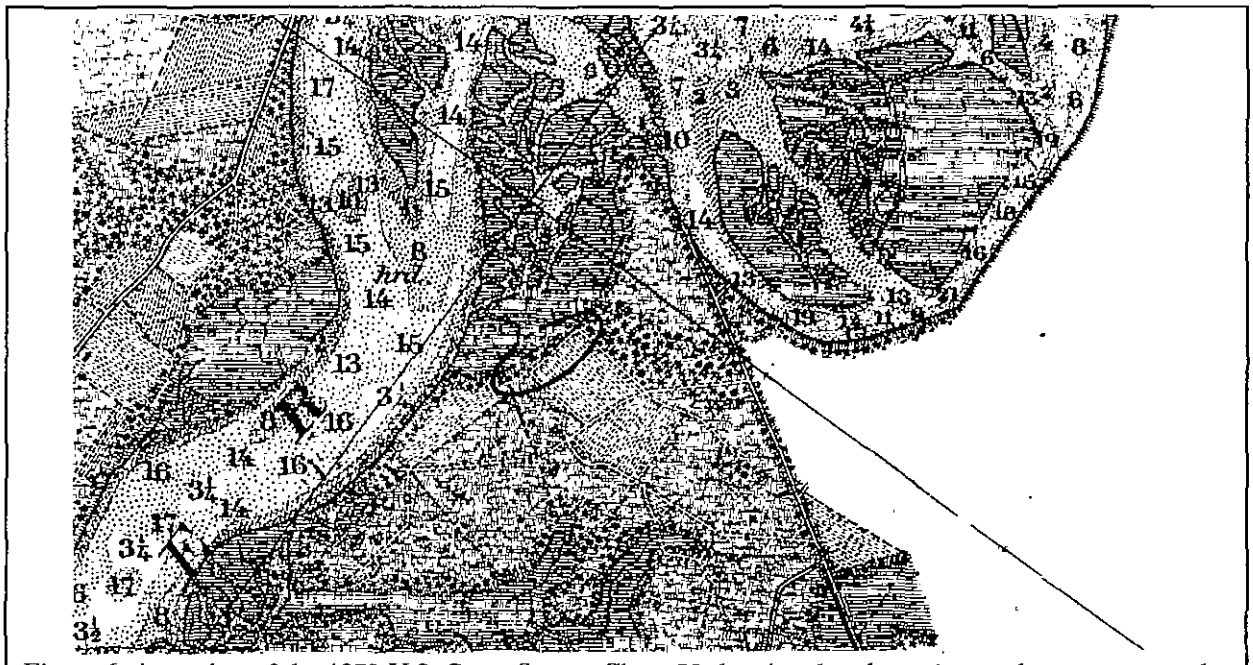
Figure 6. A portion of the 1873 U.S. Coast Survey Chart 55 showing the plantation settlement next to the marsh edge.

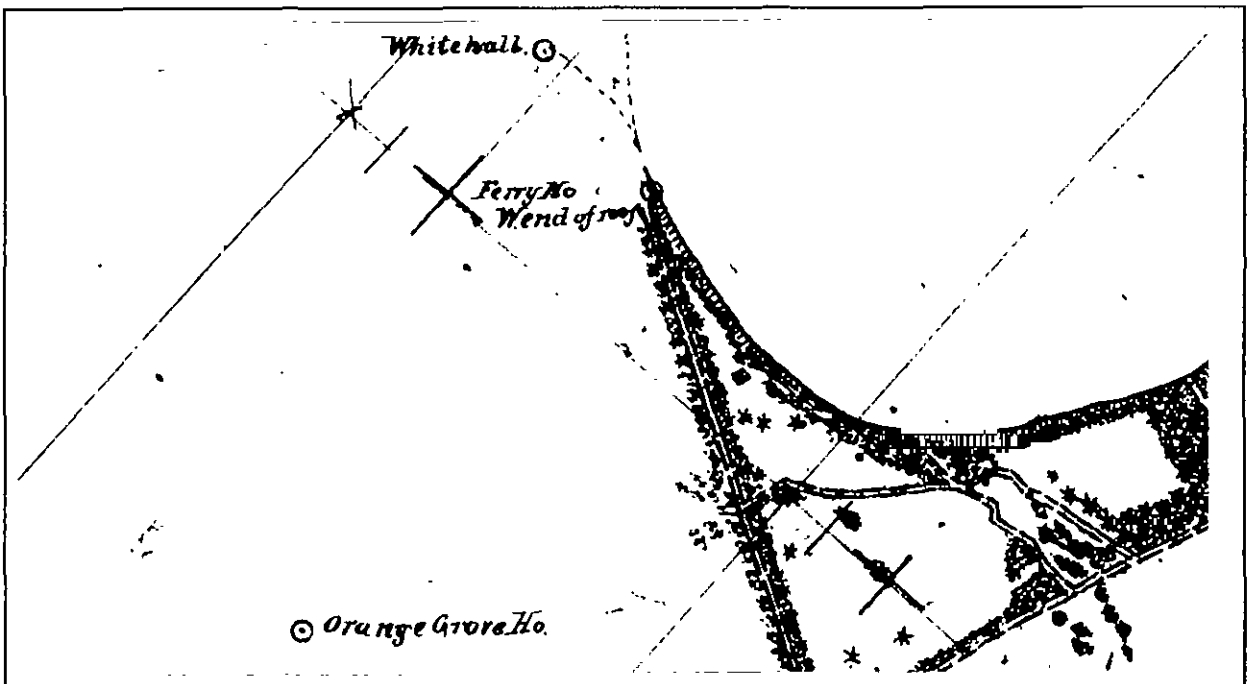

Figure 7. A portion of the 1871-72 National Ocean Survey "St. Helena and Lady's Island" chart.

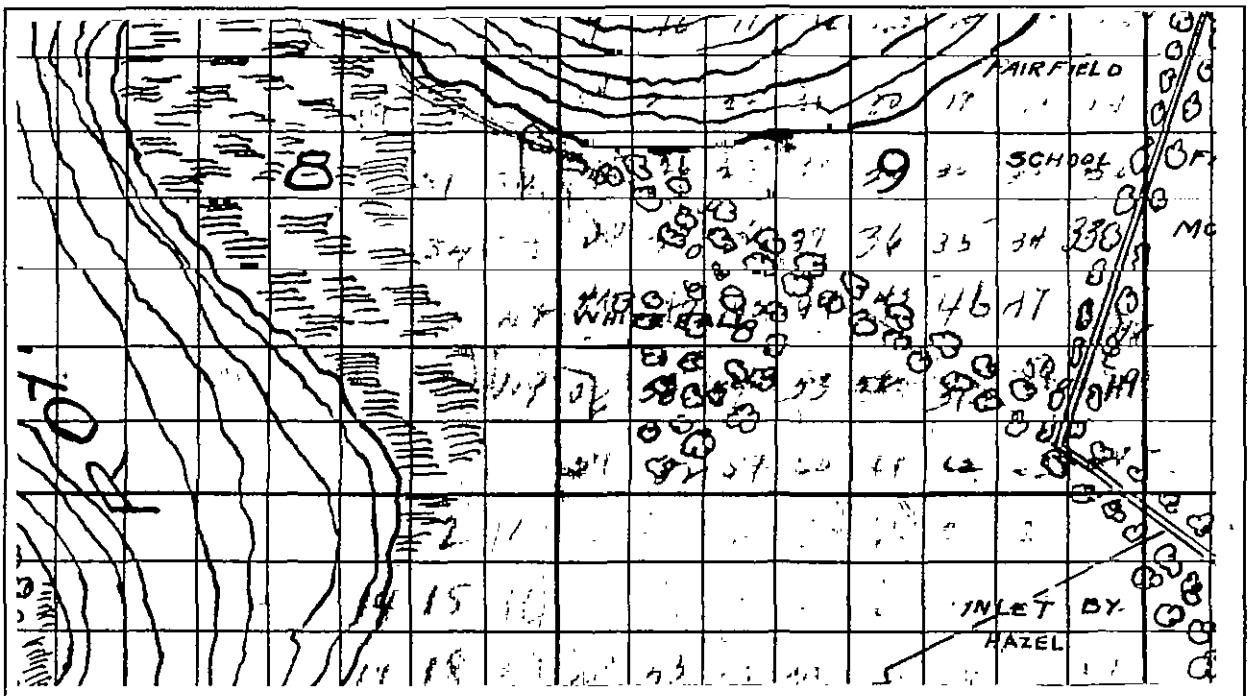

Figure 8. Portion of the postbellum McGee's Map of St. Helena Parish showing the project area.

Prehistoric Synthesis

There have been a number of studies prepared for the Beaufort area, and Derting et al. (1991:47-77) list 225 in their bibliography of South Carolina archaeology. There are a variety of excellent archaeological studies for the general project area which should be consulted (see especially Trinkley and Adams 1994 for an overview of previous research and Anderson et al. (1996) for a synthesis of current thought regarding the Woodland Period along the Carolina coast.

Paleoindian and Archaic Periods

The Paleoindian period, lasting from 12,000 to 8,000 B.C., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notched projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points; side scrapers; end scrapers; and drill (Coe 1964; Goodyear et al. 1989; Michie 1977; Williams 1968). The Paleoindian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy "oriented towards the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124).

Sea level during much of this period is expected to have been as much as 65 feet lower than present, so many sites may be inundated (Flint 1971). Unfortunately, little is known about Paleoindian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization. Generally archaeologists agree that the Paleoindian groups were at a band level of society, were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on the isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

The Archaic period, which dates from 8000 to 2000 B.C., does not form a sharp break with the Paleoindian period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. The chronology established by Coe (1964) for the North Carolina Piedmont may be applied with little modification to the South Carolina coast. Archaic period assemblages are rare in the Sea Island region, although the sea level is anticipated to have been within 13 feet of its present stand by the beginning of the succeeding Woodland period (Lepionka et al. 1983:10). Brooks and Scurry note that:

> Archaic period sites, when contrasted with the subsequent Woodland period, are typically small, relatively few in number and contain low densities of archaeological material. The data may indicate that the inter-riverine zone was utilized by Archaic populations characterized by small group size, high mobility, and wide ranging exploitative patterns (Brooks and Scurry 1978:44).

Alternatively, the general sparsity of Archaic sites in the coastal zone may be the result of a more attractive environment inland adjacent to the floodplain swamps of major drainages. Of course, this is not necessarily an alternative explanation, since coastal Archaic sites may represent only a small segment in the total settlement system.

Early Woodland

The earliest phase of the Woodland period (see Figure 9) is called Stallings, after the type site excavated by the Cosgroves in 1929 (Claflin 1931). These "Stallings Island people" produced a rich cultural assemblage of bone and antler work, polished stone items, grooved and perforated "net sinkers" or steatite disks, stone tools (including projectile points, knives, scrapers, and cruciform drills), and fiber tempered pottery (see also Williams 1968). It was over a decade before the typological significance of the Stallings ware was recognized and a formal type description was offered (Fairbanks 1942; Griffin 1943). The definitive feature of this pottery is its large quantity of fiber, now identified as Spanish Moss (Simpkins and Scoville 1981), included in the paste prior to firing. one aspect of the Stallings settlement

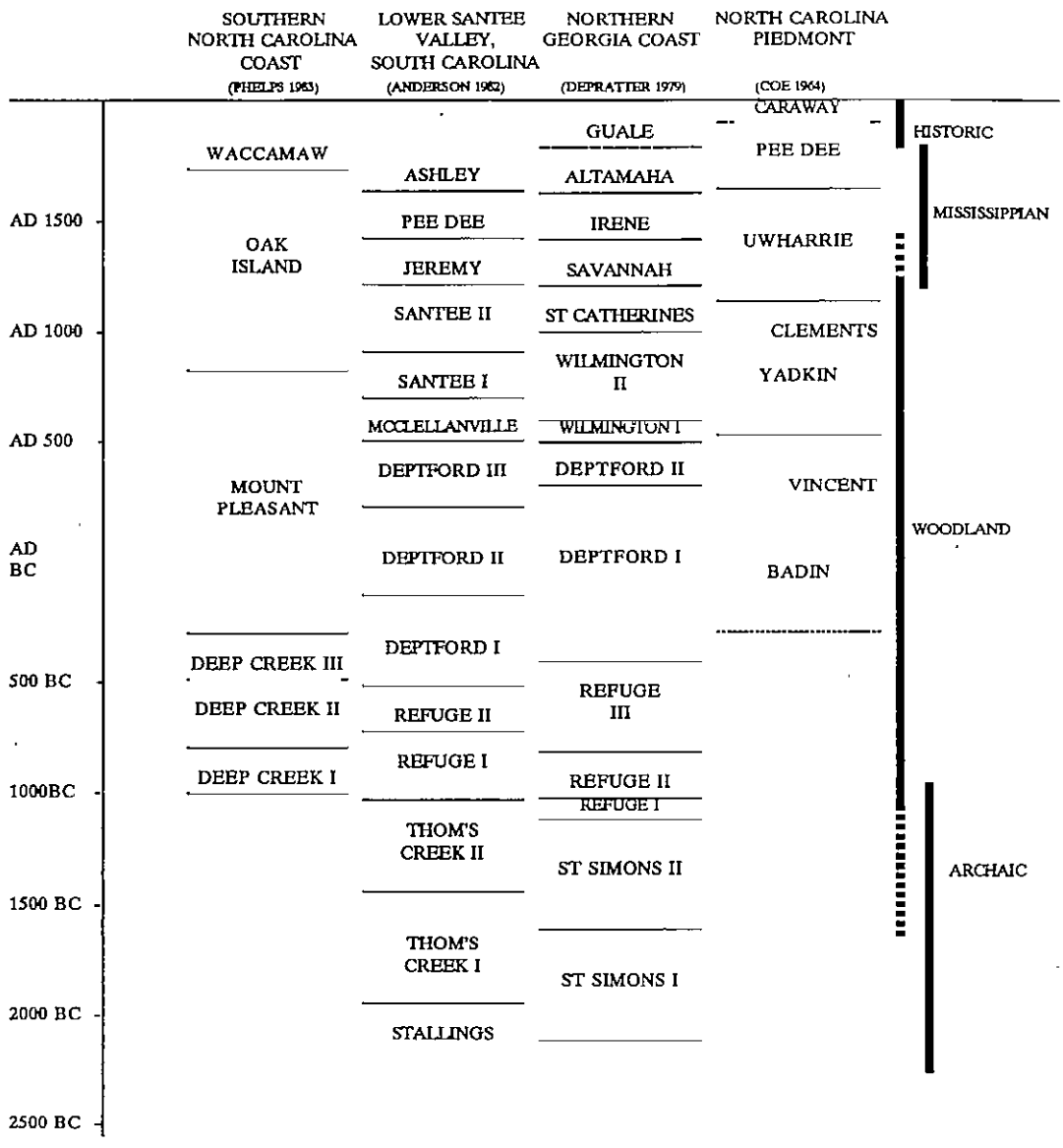

Figure 9. Woodland Period phases in the South Carolina locality.

system. Another portion of that system is represented by Stallings sites which evidence little shell. While many of these are sparse scatters, such as Clear Mount (Stoltman 1974) and Pinckney Island (Trinkley 1981b), some evidence intensive occupation with features and a rich cultural assemblage, such as the Love (38AL10; Trinkley 1974) and Fish Haul (38BU805; Trinkley 1986) sites.

The elaborate Savannah River drainage sites such as Stallings Island, Fennel Hill, Rabbit Mount, and Bilbo, are all characterized by large quantities of either fresh water mussels or tidal oysters, large quantities of artifacts, and abundant features. These middens, however, represent only one aspect of the Stallings settlement system. Another portion of that system is represented by Stallings sites which evidence little shell. While many of these are sparse scatters, such as Clear Mount (Stoltman 1974) and Pinckney Island (Trinkley 1981b), some evidence intensive occupation, such as the Love (38AL10; Trinkley 1974) and Fish Haul (38BU805; Trinkley 1986) sites.

At the Fish Haul site a Stallings phase "D"-shaped structure containing about 90 square feet of floor area has been identified (Trinkley 1986:145-147) and Stoltman (1974:51-54) recovered a lean-to structure at Rabbit Mount. The function of essentially non-shell midden sites such as Love and Fish Haul is only partially understood at present, although shellfish seasonality and ethnobotanical studies (Claassen 1986; Lawrence 1986; Trinkley 1986) are beginning to suggest late fall and winter occupation. These may represent early sites when the subsistence base was diffuse, prior to intensive riverine and estuarine exploitation. Alternatively, and more likely, they may represent a seasonal round in the Stallings settlement system. Riverine shellfish may have been gathered in the fall when the Savannah River and its tributaries were low and clear, while other resources away from the river were exploited during the period of high discharge in the late winter and spring (Anderson and Schuldenrein 1985:13). Additional work within the Savannah drainage is necessary to understand more fully the relationship between large shell middens, dense non-shell upland and coastal sites, and sparse upland and coastal "scatters."

The following Thom's Creek phase dates as early as 2220±350 B.C. (UGA-584) from Spanish Mount in Charleston County (Sutherland 1974) and continues to at least 935±175 B.C. (UGA-2901), based on a date from the Lighthouse Point Shell Ring, also in Charleston County (Trinkley 1980b:191-192). The Thom's Creek phase is characterized by an artifact assemblage almost identical to that of Stallings sites. The only major differences include the replacement of fiber tempering with sand, or a clay not requiring tempering, and the gradual reduction of projectile point size.

Thom's Creek pottery, first typed by Griffin (1945), consists of sandy paste pottery decorated with the motifs common to the Stallings series, including punctations (reed and shell), finger pinching, simple stamping, incising, and very late in the phase, finger smoothed (Trinkley 1980a). Investigations at the Lighthouse Point and Stratton Place shell rings, stratigraphic studies at Spanish Mount and Fig Island, radiocarbon dates from Lighthouse Point and Venning Creek, and the study of surface collections from a number of sites, have suggested a temporal ordering of the Thom's Creek series. Reed punctated pottery appears to be the oldest, followed by the shell punctated and finger pinched motifs. Late in the Thom's Creek phase, perhaps by 1000 B.C., there is the addition of Thom's Creek Finger Smoothed (Trinkley 1983a:44). Vessel forms include deep, straight sided jars and shallow conoidal bowls. Lip treatments are simple, and coiling fractures are common. Firing of the Thom's Creek vessels is certainly better than that evidenced for Stallings, but there continues to be abundant incompletely oxidized specimens.

Like the Stallings settlement pattern, Thom's Creek sites are found in a variety of environmental zones and take on several forms. Thom's Creek sites are found throughout the South Carolina Coastal Zone, Coastal Plain, and up to the Fall Line. The sites are found into the North Carolina Coastal Plain, but do not appear to extend southward into Georgia. There appears to

be strong concentration of Thom's Creek sites in the Santee River drainage and the central South Carolina coast (see Anderson 1975:184).

In the Coastal Plain drainage of the Savannah River there is a change of settlement, and probably subsistence, away from the riverine focus found in the Stallings Phase (Hanson 1982:13; Stoltman 1974:235-236). Thom's Creek sites are more commonly found in the upland areas and lack evidence of intensive shellfish collection. In the Coastal Zone large, irregular shell middens; small middens with only sparse shell; and large "shell rings" are found in the Thom's Creek settlement system.

Limited testing has been conducted at one small Thom's Creek non-shell midden on Sol Legare Island (38CH779) in Charleston County, South Carolina (Trinkley 1984). The site evidenced very limited reliance on shellfish and faunal remains, with the bulk of the food remains consisting of large mammals. Excavations also identified a portion of a probable Thom's Creek post structure situated about 180 feet inland from the marsh edge.

Excavations at other Coastal Zone Thom's Creek sites includes the work by Sutherland (1973, 1974) at the Spanish Mount shell midden (38CH62). While this work has never been completely published, the site appears to represent a seasonally occupied camp with a diffuse subsistence base, including reliance on shellfish, floral material, fish, and mammals.

By far the most work has been conducted at Thom's Creek phase shell rings (see Trinkley 1980b, 1985). These sites are circular middens about 130 to 300 feet in diameter, 2 to 6 feet in height, and 40 feet in width at their bases, with clear interiors. These doughnut-shaped accumulations were formed as small mounds, arranged around an open ground area, and gradually blended together. The ring itself is composed of varying proportions of shell, animal bone, pottery, soil, and other artifacts. These shell rings were apparently mundane occupation sites for fairly large social units which lived on the ring, disposed of garbage underfoot, and used the clear interiors as areas for communal activities. The sites further suggest relatively permanent, stable village life as early as 1600 B.C., with a subsistence base oriented toward large and small mammals, fish, shellfish, and hickory nut resources (Trinkley 1985).

Following Stallings and Thom's Creek are the Refuge and Deptford phases, both strongly associated with the Georgia sequence and the Savannah drainage (DePratter 1979; Lepionka et al. 1983; Williams 1968). The Refuge Phase, dated from 1070±115 B.C. (QC-784) to 510±100 B.C. (QC-785), is found primarily along the South Carolina coast from the Savannah drainage as far north as the Santee River (Williams 1968:208). Anderson (1975:184) further notes an apparent concentration of Refuge sites in the Coastal Plain, particularly along the Santee River.

The Refuge series pottery is similar in many ways to the preceding Thom's Creek wares. The paste is compact and sandy or gritty, while surface treatments include sloppy simple stamped, dentate stamped, and random punctate decorations (see DePratter 1979:115-123; Williams 1968:198-208). Anderson et al. note that these typologies are "marred by a lack of reference to the Thom's Creek series" (Anderson et al. 1982:265) and that the Refuge Punctate and Incised types are indistinguishable from Thom's Creek wares. Peterson (1971:153) characterizes Refuge as both a degeneration of the preceding Thom's Creek series and also as a bridge to the succeeding Deptford series.

It is difficult to reconstruct the subsistence base, although the sites suggest small, seasonal camps for small groups (Trinkley 1982). The settlement fragmentation, which began at the end of the Thom's Creek phase, around 1000 B.C., probably relates to the increase in sea level, from a Thom's Creek phase low of 10 feet below the current high marsh surface at 1200 B.C. to a high of about 3 feet below the current high marsh surface at 950 B.C. (Colquhoun et al. 1980; Brooks et al. 1989). This increasing sea level drowned the tidal marshes (and sites) on which the Thom's Creek people relied. The following Refuge phase evidences the fragmentation necessary when the

environment which gave rise to large sedentary populations disappeared. Hanson (1982:21-23), based on Savannah River data, suggests that subsistence stress present during the Thom's Creek phase may have resulted in an expansion of the settlement system into diverse environmental settings. It seems likely, however, that the development of mature, upland tributaries was also essential ingredient in this process (see Sassaman et al. 1989). This same "splintering" is observed on the South Carolina coast.

The Deptford culture takes its name from the type site located east of Savannah, Georgia, which was excavated in the mid-1930s (Caldwell 1943:12-16). Deptford phase sites are best recognized by the presence of fine to course sandy paste pottery with a check stamped surface treatment. This pottery is typically in the form of a cylindrical vessel with a conoidal base. The flat bottomed bowl with tetrapodal supports found at Deptford sites along the Florida Gulf coast (Milanich and Fairbanks 1980:79) is very rare in South Carolina. Other Deptford phase pottery styles include cord marking, simple stamping, a complicated stamping which resembles early Swift Creek, and a geometric stamping which consists of a series of carved triangles or diamonds with interior dots (see Anderson et al. 1982:277-293; DePratter 1979).

The Deptford technology is little better known than that of the preceding Refuge phase. Shell tools are uncommon, bone tools are "extremely rare" (Milanich and Fairbanks 1980:77), and stone tools are rare on Coastal Zone sites. All of this indicates to some researchers that "wood must have been worked into a variety of tool types" (Milanich and Fairbanks 1980:75). One type of stone tool associated with South Carolina Deptford sites is a very small, stemmed projectile point tentatively described as "Deptford Stemmed" (Trinkley 1980c:20-23). This point is the culmination of the Savannah River Stemmed reduction seen in the Thom's Creek and Refuge phases. Also found at Deptford sites are "medium-sized triangular points," probably similar to the Yadkin Triangular point (Coe 1964:45, 47, 49; Milanich and Fairbanks 1980:75-76).

Perhaps of even greater interest is the co-occurrence of the larger triangular points (such as Badin and Yadkin) with smaller triangular forms (such as Caraway) traditionally attributed to the Late Woodland and South Appalachian Mississippian periods. This situation has been reported at Coastal Plain sites (Blanton et al. 1986:107), Savannah River sites (Sassaman et al. 1989:157), and Coastal Zone sites (Trinkley 1990). Blanton et al. (1986) suggest that these point types were used at the same time, but perhaps for different tasks.

The traditional view of an estuarine Deptford adaptation with minor interior occupations must be re-evaluated based on the Savannah River drainage work of Brooks and Hanson (1987) and Sassaman et al. (1989:293-295) who suggest larger residential base camps and foraging zones along the Savannah River, coupled with smaller, household residences and foraging zones in the uplands along small tributaries.

Throughout much of the Coastal Zone and Coastal Plain north of Charleston, a somewhat different cultural manifestation is observed, related to the "Northern Tradition" (e.g., Caldwell 1958). This recently identified assemblage has been termed Deep Creek and was first identified from northern North Carolina sites (Phelps 1983). The Deep Creek assemblage is characterized by pottery with medium to coarse sand inclusions and surface treatments of cord marking, fabric impressing, simple stamping, and net impressing (see Trinkley 1987). Much of this material has been previously designated as the Middle Woodland "Cape Fear" pottery originally typed by South (1960). The Deep Creek wares date from about 1000 B.C. to A.D. 1 in North Carolina, but may date later in South Carolina, based on two radiocarbon dates of 120±130 B.C. (QC-1358) and A.D. 210±110 (QC-1357). The Deep Creek settlement and subsistence systems are poorly known, but appear to be very similar to those identified with the Deptford phase.

The Deep Creek assemblage strongly resembles Deptford both typologically and temporally. It appears this northern tradition of cord and fabric impressions was introduced and gradually accepted by indigenous South Carolina

populations. During this time some groups continued making only the older carved paddle-stamped pottery, while others mixed the two styles, and still others (and later all) made exclusively cord and fabric stamped wares.

Middle Woodland

Although the Deptford phase is discussed as part of the Early Woodland, many authors place the phase intermediate between the Early and Middle Woodland (see, for example, Anderson et al. 1982:28, 250). Such an approach is not unreasonable, because Deptford exhibits considerable temporal range and cultural adaptations which are more characteristically Middle Woodland (see also Anderson 1985:53). The Deptford phase, however, is still part of the early carved paddle stamped tradition which is replaced by the posited northern intrusion of wrapped paddle stamping during the Middle Woodland. Clearly the Deep Creek pottery, at the same time period as Deptford, is part of this "Northern Tradition," yet the Deep Creek, on temporal grounds, is considered Early Woodland by Phelps (1983:17, 29). This is meant simply to indicate that the transition from Early to Middle Woodland is not as clear as one might wish.

The Middle Woodland in South Carolina is characterized by a pattern of settlement mobility and short-term occupation. On the southern coast it is associated with the Wilmington phase, while on the northern coast it is recognized by the presence of Hanover, McClellanville or Santee, and Mount Pleasant assemblages. Wilmington and Hanover may be viewed as regional varieties of the same ceramic tradition. The pottery is characterized almost solely by its crushed sherd (perhaps with grog as well) temper which makes up 30 to 40% of the paste and which ranges in size from 3 to 10 mm. Wilmington was first described by Caldwell and Waring (Williams 1968:113-116) from coastal Georgia work, while the Hanover description was offered by South (1960), based on a survey of the Southeastern coast of North Carolina (with incursions into South Carolina). The Wilmington phase was seen by Waring (Williams 1968:221) as intrusive from the Carolina coast, but there is considerable evidence for the inclusion of Deptford traits in the Wilmington series. For example, Caldwell and McCann (1940:n.p.) noted that, "the Wilmington complex proper contains all of the main kinds of decoration which occur in the Deptford complex with the probable exception of Deptford Linear Checkstamped" (see also Anderson et al. 1982:275). Consequently, surface treatments of cord marking, check stamping, simple stamping, and fabric impressing may be found with sherd tempered paste.

Sherd tempered Wilmington and Hanover wares are found from at least the Chowan River in North Carolina southward onto the Georgia coast. Anderson (1975:187) has found the Hanover series evenly distributed over the Coastal Plain of South Carolina, although it appears slightly more abundant north of the Edisto River. The heartland may be along the inner Coastal Plain north of the Cape Fear River in North Carolina. Radiocarbon dates for Wilmington and Hanover range from 135±85 B.C. (UM-1916) from site 38BK134 to A.D. 1120±100 (GX-2284) from a "Wilmington House" at the Charles Towne Landing site, 38CH1. Most dates, however, cluster from A.D. 400 to 900; some researchers prefer a date range of about 200 B.C. to A.D. 500 (Anderson et al. 1982:276).

Largely contemporaneous with the sherd tempered wares are what have been termed the Mount Pleasant, McClellanville, and Santee series. The Mount Pleasant series has been developed by Phelps from work along the northeastern North Carolina coast (Phelps 1983:32-35, 1984:41-44) and is a Middle Woodland refinement of South's (1960) previous Cape Fear series. The pottery is characterized by a sandy paste either with or without quantities of rounded pebbles. Surface treatments include fabric impressed, cord marked, and net impressed. Vessels are usually conoidal, although simple, hemispherical, and globular bowls are also present. The Mount Pleasant series is found from North Carolina southward to the Savannah River (being evidenced by the "Untyped Series" in Trinkley 1981b). North Carolina dates for the series range from A.D. 265±65 (UGA-1088) to A.D. 890±80 (UGA-3849). The several dates currently available from South Carolina (such as UGA-3512 of A.D. 565±70 from Pinckney

Island) fall into this range of about A.D. 200 to 900.

The McClellanville (Trinkley 1981a) and Santee (Anderson et al. 1982:302-308) series are found primarily on the north central coast of South Carolina and are characterized by a fine to medium sandy paste ceramic with surface treatment of primarily v-shaped simple stamping. While the two pottery types are quite similar, it appears that the Santee series may have later features, such as excurvate rims and interior rim stamping, not so-far observed in the McClellanville series. The Santee series is placed at A.D. 800 to 1300 by Anderson et al. (1982:303), while the McClellanville ware may be slightly earlier, perhaps A.D. 500 to 800. Anderson et al. (1982:302-304; see also Anderson 1985) provide a detailed discussion of the Santee Series and its possible relationships with the McClellanville Series. Anderson, based on the Santee area data from Mattassee Lake, indicates that there is evidence for the replacement of fabric impressed pottery by simple stamping about A.D. 800 (David G. Anderson, personal communication 1990). This may suggest that McClellanville and Santee wares are closely related, both typologically and culturally. Also probably related is the little known Camden Series (Stuart 1975) found in the inner Coastal Plain of South Carolina.

The best data concerning Middle Woodland Coastal Zone assemblages comes from Phelps' (1983:32-33) work in North Carolina. Associated items include a small variety of the Roanoke Large Triangular points (Coe 1964:110-111), sandstone abraders, shell pendants, polished stone gorgets, celts, and woven marsh mats. Significantly, both primary inhumations and cremations are known from the Mount Pleasant phase.

These Middle Woodland Coastal Plain and Coastal Zone phases continue the Early Woodland Deptford pattern of mobility. While sites are found all along the coast and inland to the Fall Line, shell midden sites evidence sparse shell and artifacts. Gone are the abundant shell tools, worked bone items, and clay balls. Recent investigations at Coastal Zone sites such as 38BU747 and 38BU1214, however, have provided some evidence of worked bone and shell items at Deptford phase middens (see Trinkley 1990).

In terms of settlement patterns, several researchers have offered some conclusions based on localized data. Michie (1980:80), for example, correlates rising sea levels with the extension of Middle Woodland shell middens further up the Port Royal estuary. Scurry and Brooks (1980:75-78) find the Middle Woodland site patterning in the Wando River affected not only by the sea level fluctuations, but also by soil types (see also Trinkley 1980b:445-446). They suggest that the strong soil correlation is the result of upland sites having functioned as extraction areas, principally for exploitation of acorns, hickory nuts, and deer. Shell midden sites, they suggest, also represent seasonal camps and therefore exhibit small size, low artifact density, and infrequent re-occupation. Ward's (1978) work in Marlboro County suggests that interior site patterning changed little from the Early to Middle Woodland. Sites continue to be found on the low, sandy ridges overlooking hardwood swamp floodplains, which suggests that while pottery styles changed, site locations, and presumably subsistence, did not (see also Ferguson 1976). Drucker and Anthony's (1978) work in Florence County, South Carolina reveals virtually continuous short-term occupation along the terraces associated with the floodplain of Lynch's Lake. DePratter's work at the Dunlap site, however, suggests that a few, relatively stable villages were present in the Middle Woodland.

Late Woodland and South Appalachian Mississippian

In many respects the South Carolina Late Woodland may be characterized as a continuation of previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblages. While outside the Carolinas there were major cultural changes, such as the continued development and elaboration of agriculture, the Carolina groups settled into a lifeway not appreciably different from that observed for the previous 500 to 700 years (cf. Sassaman et al. 1989:14-15). This situation would remain unchanged until the development of the South Appalachian Mississippian complex (see Ferguson

1971).

Along the central and northern South Carolina coast, Anderson et al. (1982:303-304) suggest a continuation of the Santee series into the Late Woodland. The Hanover and Mount Pleasant series may also be found as late of A.D. 1000. Along the southeastern North Carolina coast, South (1960) has defined the Oak Island complex, which is best known for its shell tempered ceramics with cord marked, fabric impressed, simple stamped, and net impressed surface finishes. The phase is briefly discussed by Phelps (1983:48-49), but curiously this manifestation is almost unknown south of the Little River in South Carolina. Very little is known about the northern coastal South Carolina Late Woodland complexes, although sites such as 38GE32 may document the occurrence of village life in the Late Woodland.

The South Appalachian Mississippian is typically characterized by the construction of truncated temple mounds, reliance on cultivated crops, the development of a social elite, and complicated stamped pottery. The best information for the coastal area comes from the only incompletely reported excavations at the Charles Town Landing site (South 1971). In addition, Anderson (1989) provides an excellent synthesis of Mississippian research in South Carolina, observing that "while we have a fair appreciation for the culmination of the Mississippian in South Carolina, its origins and immediate Woodland antecedents remains largely unknown at the present" (Anderson 1989:114; see also Anderson 1994).

Anderson also notes the need for additional research in the area of:

> relationships between Woodland and Mississippian occupations in South Carolina, particularly the mechanisms bringing about the transition between the seemingly markedly dissimilar forms of social organization and subsistence adaptation (Anderson 1989:113).

While Trinkley (1981a, 1983a, 1983b) has offered a cultural sequence for the Mississippian remains in the coastal area that encompasses the Jeremy, "classic" Pee Dee, "post-classic" Pee Dee, Wachesaw, and Kimbel series, Anderson et al. (1982:312-319) offers an alternative perspective incorporating Pee Dee and Ashley wares.

Protohistoric

The history of the numerous small coastal Indian tribes is poorly known. As Mooney noted, the coastal tribes:

> were of but small importance politically; no sustained mission work was ever attempted among them, and there were but few literary men to take an interest in them. War, pestilence, whiskey and systematic slave hunts had nearly exterminated the aboriginal occupants of the Carolinas before any body had thought them of sufficient importance to ask who they were, how they lived, or what were their beliefs and opinions (Mooney 1894:6).

In truth, our knowledge of these groups has also been limited because too few scholars have taken an active interest in the primary sources and there has been too little desire to evaluate critically the early research by Mooney (1894) and Swanton (1952). For South Carolina Anderson (1989:117-118) briefly notes the current status of ethnohistoric research.

Historic Synopsis

The Spanish and French

The first Spanish explorations in the Carolina low country were conducted in the 1520s under the direction of Lucas Vasquez de Ayllon and Francisco Gordillo. One of the few areas explored by Gordillo which can be identified with any certainty is Santa Elena (St. Helena). Apparently Port Royal Sound was entered and land fall made at Santa Elena on Santa Elena's Day, August 18, 1520. "Cape Santa Elena,"

according to Quattlebaum (1956:8) was probably Hilton Head (Hoffman 1984:423).

Gordillo's accounts spurred Ayllon to seek a royal commission both to explore further the land and to establish a settlement in the land called Chicora (Quattlebaum 1956:12-17). In July 1526 Ayllon set sail for Chicora with a fleet of six vessels and has been thought to have established the settlement of San Miguel del Galdape in the vicinity of Winyah Bay (Quattlebaum 1956:23). Hoffman (1984:425) has more recently suggested that the settlement was at the mouth of the Santee River (Ayllon's Jordan River). Ferguson (n.d.:1) has suggested that San Miguel was established at Santa Elena in the Port Royal area. More recently, scholars have suggested that the settlement was on the Georgia coast, in the vicinity of St. Catherines Island (Rowland et al. 1996). Regardless, the colony was abandoned in the winter of 1526 with the survivors reaching Hispaniola in 1527 (Quattlebaum 1956:27).

The French, in response to increasing Spanish activity in the New World, undertook a settlement in the land of Chicora in 1562. Charlesfort was established in May 1562 under the direction of Jean Ribaut. This settlement fared no better than the earlier Spanish fort of San Miguel and was abandoned within the year (Quattlebaum 1956:42-56). Ribaut was convinced that his settlement was on the Jordan River in the vicinity of Ayllon's Chicora (Hoffman 1984:432). Recent historical and archaeological studies suggest that Charlesfort may have been situated on Port Royal Island in the vicinity of the Town of Port Royal (South 1982a, see also Rowland et al. 1996:23). The deserted Charlesfort was burned by the Spanish in 1564 (South 1982a:1-2). A year later France's second attempt to establish its claim in the New World was thwarted by the Spanish destruction of the French Fort Caroline on the St. John's River. The massacre at Fort Caroline ended French attempts at colonization on the southeast Atlantic coast.

To protect against any future French intrusion such as Charlesfort, the Spanish proceeded to establish a major outpost in the Beaufort area. The town of Santa Elena was built in 1566, a year after a fort was built in St. Augustine. Three sequential forts were constructed: Fort San Salvador (1566-1570), Fort San Felipe (1570-1576), and Fort San Marcos (1577-1587). In spite of Indian hostilities and periodic burning of the town and forts, the Spanish maintained this settlement until 1587 when it was finally abandoned (South 1979, 1982a, 1982b). Spanish influence, however, continued through a chain of missions spreading up the Atlantic coast from St. Augustine into Georgia. That mission activity, however, declined noticeably during the eighteenth century, primarily because of 1702 and 1704 attacks on St. Augustine and outlying missions by South Carolina Governor James Moore (Deagan 1983:25-26, 40).

The British Proprietory Period

British influence in the New World began in the fifteenth century with the Cabot voyages, but the southern coast did not attract serious attention until King Charles II granted Carolina to the Lords Proprietors in 1663. In August 1663 William Hilton sailed from Barbados to explore the Carolina territory, spending a great deal of time in the Port Royal area (Holmgren 1959). Almost chosen for the first English colony, Hilton Head Island was passed over by Sir John Yeamans in favor of the more protected Charles Town site on the west bank of the Ashley River in 1670 (Clowse 1971:23-24; Holmgren 1959:39).

Like other European powers, the English were lured to the New World for reasons other than the acquisition of land and promotion of agriculture. The Lords Proprietors, who owned the colony until 1719-1720, intended to discover a staple crop whose marketing would provide great wealth through the mercantile system, which was designed to profit the mother country by providing raw materials unavailable in England (Clowse 1971). Charleston was settled by English citizens, including a number from Barbados, and by Huguenot refugees. Black slaves were brought directly from Africa, as well as Barbados.

The Charleston settlement was moved from the mouth of the Ashley River to the junction of the Ashley and Cooper Rivers in 1680,

but the colony was a thorough disappointment to the Proprietors. It failed to grow as expected, did not return the anticipated profit, and failed to evidence workable local government (Ferris 1968:124-125). The early economy was based almost exclusively on Indian trade, naval stores, lumber, and cattle. Rice began emerging as a money crop in the late seventeenth century, but did not markedly improve the economic well-being of the colony until the eighteenth century (Clowse 1971).

Meanwhile, Scottish Covenanters under Lord Cardross established Stuart's Town on Scot's Island (Port Royal) in 1684, where it existed for four years until destroyed by the Spanish. It was not until 1698 that the area was again occupied by the English. Both John Stuart and Major Robert Daniell took possession of lands on St. Helena and Port Royal islands. The town of Beaufort was founded in 1711 although it was not immediately settled. Spring Island was granted to John Cockran in 1706 in two parcels of 500 acres each (S.C. Department of Archives and History, Colonial Series, Royal Grants, volume 39, page 6). One grant mentions that the land is "part of an Island over against Alatamaha Town."

While most of the Beaufort Indian groups were persuaded to move to Polawana Island in 1712, the Yemassee, part of the Creek Confederacy, revolted in 1715. By 1718 the Yemassee were defeated and forced southward to Spanish protection. Consequently, the Beaufort area, known as St. Helena Parish, Granville County, was for the first time relatively safe from both the Spanish and the Indians. The Yemassee, however, continued occasional raids into South Carolina, such as the 1728 destruction of the Passage Fort at Bloody Point on Daufuskie Island (Starr 1984:16). In the same year the English raid on St. Augustine succeeded in breaking the Spanish influence and the remnant Indian groups made peace with the English. The results for the Beaufort area, however, were mixed. While there was a semblance of peace, frontier settlements were largely deserted, population growth was slow, and the Indian trade was diverted from Beaufort to Savannah.

The British Colonial Period

Although peace marked the Carolina colony, the Proprietors continued to have disputes with the populace, primarily over the colony's economic stagnation and deterioration. In 1727 the colony's government virtually broke down when the Council and the Commons were unable to agree on legislation to provide more bills of credit (Clowse 1971:238). This, coupled with the disastrous depression of 1728, brought the colony to the brink of mob violence. Clowse notes that the "initial step toward aiding South Carolina came when the proprietors were eliminated" in 1720 (Clowse 1971:241).

While South Carolina's economic woes were far from solved by this transfer, the Crown's Board of Trade began taking steps to remedy many of the problems. A new naval store law was passed in 1729 with possible advantages accruing to South Carolina. In 1730 the Parliament opened Carolina rice trade with markets in Spain and Portugal. The Board of Trade also dealt with the problem of the colony's financial solvency (Clowse 1971:245-247). Clowse notes that these changes, coupled with new land policies, "allowed the colony to go into an era of unprecedented expansion" (Clowse 1971:249). South Carolina's position was buttressed by the settlement of Georgia in 1733.

By 1730 the colony's population had risen to about 30,000 individuals, 20,000 of whom were black slaves (Clowse 1971:Table 1). The majority of these slaves were used in South Carolina's expanding rice industry. In the 1730 harvest year 48,155 barrels of rice were reported, up 15,771 barrels or 33% from the previous year (Clowse 1971:Table 3). Although rice was grown in the Beaufort area, it did not become a major crop in South Carolina until after the Revolutionary War. Rice was never a significant crop on the Beaufort Sea Islands, where ranch farming was favored because of its economic returns and favorable climate (Starr 1984:26-27). Elsewhere, however, rice monoculture shaped the social, political, and economic systems which produced and perpetuated the coastal plantation system prior to the rise of cotton culture.

Although indigo was known in the Carolina colony as early as 1669 and was being planted the following year, it was not until the 1740s that it became a major cash crop (Huneycutt 1949). While indigo was difficult to process, its success was partially due to it being complementary to rice. Huneycutt notes that planters were "able to 'dovetail' the work season of the two crops so that a single gang of slaves could cultivate both staples" (Huneycutt 1949:18). Indigo continued to be the main cash crop of South Carolina until the Revolutionary War fatally disrupted the industry.

During the Revolutionary War the British occupied Charleston for over two and one-half years (1780-1782). A post was established in Beaufort to coordinate forays into the inland waterways after Prevost's retreat from the Battle of Stono Ferry (Federal Writer's Project 1938:7; Rowland 1978:288). British earthworks were established around Port Royal and on Lady's Island (Rowland 1978:290). The removal of the royal bounties on rice, indigo, and naval stores caused considerable economic chaos during and after the war with the eventual "restructuring of the state's agricultural and commercial base" (Brockington et al. 1985:34).

The Antebellum Period

While freed of Britain and her mercantilism, the new United States found its economy thoroughly disrupted. There was no longer a bounty on indigo, and in fact Britain encouraged competition from the British and French West Indies and India "to embarrass her former colonies" (Huneycutt 1949:44). As a consequence the economy shifted to tidewater rice production and cotton agriculture. Lepionka notes that "long staple cotton of the Sea Islands was of far higher value than the common variety (60 cents a pound compared to 15 cents a pound in the late 1830s) and this became the major cash crop of the coastal islands" (Lepionka et al. 1983:20). It was cotton, in the Beaufort area, that brought a full establishment of the plantation economy. Lepionka concisely states that:

> [t]he cities of Charleston and Savannah and numerous smaller towns such as Beaufort and Georgetown were supported in their considerable splendor on this wealth . . . . An aristocratic planter class was created, but was based on the essential labor of black slavery without which the plantation economy could not function. Consequently, the demographic pattern of a black majority first established in colonial times was reinforced (Lepionka et al. 1983:21).

Mills, in 1826, provides a thorough commentary on the Beaufort District noting that:

> Beaufort is admirably situated for commerce, possessing one of the finest ports and spacious harbors in the world . . . . There is no district in the state, either better watered, of more extended navigation, or possessing a larger portion of rich land, than Beaufort: more than one half of the territory is rich swamp land, capable of being improved so as to yield abundantly (Mills 1826:367).

Describing the Beaufort islands, Mills comments that they were "beautiful to the eye, rich in production, and withal salubrious" (Mills 1826:372). Land prices ranged from $60 an acre for the best, $30 for "second quality," and as low as 25 cents for the "inferior" lands. Grain and sugarcane were cultivated in small quantities for home use while:

> [t]he principal attention of the planter is . . . devoted to the cultivation of cotton and rice, especially the former. The sea islands, or salt water lands, yield cotton of the finest staple, which commands the highest price in market; it has been no uncommon circumstance for such cotton to bring $1 a pound. In favorable

> seasons, or particular spots, nearly 300 weight has been raised from an acre, and an active field hand can cultivate upwards of four acres, exclusive of one acre and half of corn and ground provisions (Mills 1826:368).

Reference to the 1860 agricultural census reveals that of the 891,228 acres of farmland, 274,015 (30.7%) were improved. In contrast, only 28% of the State's total farmland was improved, and only 17% of the neighboring Colleton District's farm land was improved. Even in wealthy Charleston District only 17.8% of the farm land was improved (Kennedy 1864:128-129). The cash value of Beaufort farms was $9,900,652, while the state average by county was only $4,655,083. The value of Beaufort farms was greater than any other district in the state for that year, and only Georgetown listed a greater cash value of farming implements and machinery (perhaps reflecting the more specialized equipment needed for rice production). There are postbellum accounts, however, which suggest that Lady's Island was always considered a poor second to St. Helena in terms of general agricultural productivity, cotton yields, and wealth of its planters. Edward Philbrick wrote in 1862:

> the greater part of the plantations on Ladies Island are miserably poor, being the property of small proprietors who had not sufficient capital to make planting profitable. The soil is poor and he negroes for the most part have not sufficient food on hand for the coming year. The cotton crop is proportionally small and poor. No ginning apparatus being found there, I hall have it all taken to Beaufort for the steam-gins (Pearson 1906:117).

The record of wealth and prosperity, such as it was, is tempered by the realization that it was based on the racial imbalance typical of Southern slavery. In 1820 there were 32,199 people enumerated in Beaufort District, 84.9% of whom were black (Mills 1826:372). While the 1850 population had risen to 38,805, the racial breakdown had changed little, with 84.7% being black (83.2% were slaves). Thus, while the statewide ratio of free white to black slave was 1:1.4, the Beaufort ratio was 1:5.4 (DeBow 1853:338).

An interesting account of slavery on Lady's Island is presented by the W.P.A. slave narrative of Sam Mitchell, who, interviewed at age 87, clearly remembered the Woodlawn Plantation at the north end of the island. Woodland was a minor holding of Chaplin, who lived at Brickyard Plantation in the winter and in beaufort during the summer. Mitchell remembered about 15 slaves on Woodlawn, which had a slave street or row. Each cabin had two rooms, although Chaplin "gib you nutting for yo' hourse — you hab to git dat de best way you can" (Rawick 1972:200). Each Tuesday the slaves were given one peck of corn as a ration, with sweet potatoes provided when available. Twice a year cloth was provided for clothing, and shoes were provided once a year. Each slave was allowed two tasks of land to cultivate for their own use and a family was allowed to raise one pig. Mitchell's father was a carpenter, although at night he would go fishing or cut wood for a source of independent income. Woodlawn had no overseer, but operated under a slave driver. Woodlawn also had its own chapel, with a black minister. Slaves were allowed to leave the plantation on Saturday for Beaufort (Rawick 1972:200-204). Mitchell's story is certainly similar to many other, unrecorded, accounts of slavery in St. Helena Parish.

Civil War and the Postbellum

Hilton Head Island fell to Union forces on November 7, 1861 and was occupied by the Expeditionary Corps under the direction of General T.W. Sherman. Beaufort, deserted by the Confederate troops and the white towns-people, was occupied by the Union forces several weeks later. A single white person, who remained loyal to the Federal government, was found on Lady's Island (Johnson 1969:189). Hilton Head became the Headquarters for the Department of the South and served as the staging area for a variety of military campaigns. A brief sketch of this period,

generally accurate, is offered by Holmgren (1959), while a similarly popular account is provided by Carse (1981). As a result of Hilton Head and Beaufort's early occupation by Union forces, all of the plantations fell to military occupation, a large number of blacks flocked to the area, and a "Department of Experiments" was born. An excellent account of the "Port Royal Experiment" is provided by Rose (1964), while the land policies on St. Helena are explored by McGuire (1985).

Recently, Trinkley (1986) has examined the freedmen village of Mitchelville on Hilton Head Island. One result of the Mitchelville work was to document how little is actually known about the black heritage and postbellum history of the sea islands. Even the social research spearheaded by the University of North Carolina's Institute for Research in Social Science at Chapel Hill in the early twentieth century (e.g. Johnson 1969, Woofter 1930) failed to record much of the activities on islands such as Hilton Head or Lady's Island.

Charlotte Forten comments that at some plantations on Lady's Island, "the masters, in their hasty flight from the islands left nearly all their furniture; but much of it was destroyed or taken by the soldiers who came first, and what they left was removed by the people to their own houses" (Forten 1864:590). The depredations of the Federal troops on Lady's Island is the common thread of many accounts. Not only was virtually all of the corn removed from Lady's Island in 1862 to feed the blacks on nearby St. Helena (see Pearson 1906:54), but Philbrick mentioned that:

> on the north end of Ladies Island the pickets are changed every little while, and have killed nearly all the negroes' poultry. The people don't dare to leave their houses, and take all their hens into their houses every night. They shoot their pigs and in one case have shot two working mules (Pearson 1906:118).

Earlier, Edward Pierce reported that the Union soldiers were slaughtering all of the livestock they would find on the plantations, sometimes killing as many as "fifty or more head on a plantation" (quoted in Johnson 1969:159).

While it seems likely that the Union pickets were stationed at a number of places on Lady's Island, the major post was "Coosaw" or "Sams" fort, an earthwork on the northeastern point of the island (Pearson 1906:240; U.S. Coast Survey Chart, "Coast of South Carolina From Charleston to Hilton Head," dated 1862). These outposts were established, in part, as a response to the fear of Confederate attack from the north (see *Official Records*, Series I, volume 14, page 189). A letter dated August 31, 1862 briefly describes the outposts and mentions the presence of the 6th Connecticut Volunteers in the area (South Caroliniana Library, letter of Sam B. Shepard).

Of the 30 or 31 plantations on Lady's Island, the Federal government purchases all but seven through the District Tax sales held in 1863 (McGuire 1982:23, 35). The seven plantations not purchases by the Federal government were sold to private investors, including both black and white individuals. McGuire (1982, 1985) provides a detailed account of the land policies in the area during the Civil War and her studies should be consulted for detailed information. In general, however, blacks slowly came to own a large proportion of the available land. Certificates of possession were eventually issued for a number of the sea island plantations (McGuire 1982:36). During the postbellum period previous owners slowly came forward to reclaim, or redeem, land confiscated by the Federal government. The 1872 redemption process was not totally successful, partially because some tracts had such low value. By the 1890s a program was established to provide owners unsuccessful at either restoration or redemption with token compensation (McGuire 1982:77; S.C. Department of Archives and History, Secretary of State Records, Beaufort County Tax Claims, Direct Tax Compensation Book IX/2/4/3B).

One of the more unique government programs of the "Port Royal Experiment" was the formation of "school farms." These were small portions of plantations set aside as mini-farms.

Rent and sale proceeds from these acreages formed a public school fund intended to assist with the education of the Beaufort freedmen. redemption of school farms came about even more slowly than other lands, largely because of their association with the funding of public education for freedmen. In addition, the lands, never first choice to begin with, were often eroded and poorly tended. By 1886 the school farm concept was abandoned. Curiously, the funds resulting from this system were not made available to the State by the Federal government until 1909 (McGuire 1982:68-69, 135-137, 217).

During the late nineteenth century most of the sea island plantations continued as a rural, isolated agrarian communities. The new plantation owners attempted to forge an economic relationship with the free black laborers and found a multitude of problems, including the need to pay higher wages, increasing problems with the cotton boll weevil, and decreasing fertility. The letters of G.C. Hardy, the manager of the Eustis Plantation on Lady's Island in the 1870s, clearly reveal the problems faced during this period. Hardy, in his letters to Frederic Eustis, discusses the rising labor costs and the serious losses of cotton to the boll weevil (South Caroliniana Library, Frederic A. Eustis Collection).

In the 1870s a new form of livelihood was introduced -- the mining of phosphate for fertilizer. While both land and river rock mining were conducted in South Carolina, the Beaufort area saw primarily river dredging to acquire the phosphate ore present as gravel, although land mining of phosphate nodules also took place (Mathews et al. 1980:27, 31). As the industry began to decline in the early twentieth century, blacks returned to agriculture and oyster factories.

Woofter (1930) provides information on the agricultural practices of the St. Helena blacks in the early twentieth century, noting that the population was largely stable, with most blacks remaining in the vicinity of their parents' "home" plantations (Woofter 1930:265). In 1927 the first bridge was built connecting Lady's Island and Beaufort. This signalled the end of an era. Since that time the island has continued to become more urban and the black population with is its distinctly rural lifestyle has become more uncommon.

FIELD INVESTIGATION AND RESULTS

Methodology

Proposed Methodology

Although the Beaufort County Archaeological and Historic Impact Assessment Ordinance indicates an initial requirement to perform only a reconnaissance level investigation, the Beaufort School District chose to request an intensive level survey of the Beaufort High School tract. The methods to be employed in such a study are fairly well outlined by the South Carolina State Historic Preservation Office's *Guidelines and Standards for Archaeological Investigations.*

We proposed one day of field investigations at the study tract, with the investigations focusing on several goals. First, we intended to conduct shovel testing along transects spaced 100 feet part, with shovel tests at 100 foot intervals. All shovel tests would be about 1 foot square and would be screened through ¼-inch mesh for the recovery of cultural materials. All items would be bagged by provenience, with the exception of brick, mortar, tabby, or shell, which would be recorded and discarded in the field. If there was open ground we proposed conducting a pedestrian survey — essentially walking over the ground and seeing if any artifacts were exposed.

We understood from Mr. Nobels that tabby ruins had been reported in the project area. Consequently, our second goal would be to search for any structural remains which might be present on the survey tract.

Any archaeological sites identified during this study would be recorded with the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology and we proposed curating the resulting collections with that agency. In so far as possible, all sites identified in the survey would be assessed for their eligibility for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. This assessment process follows that outlined by Townsend et al. (1993) in *National Register Bulletin* 36. This evaluative processes involves five steps, forming a clearly defined, explicit rationale for either the site's eligibility or lack of eligibility. Briefly, these steps are:

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as artifacts, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;

- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;

- identification of the important research questions the site *might* be able to address, given the data sets and the context;

- evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets are sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and

- identification of "important" research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

Taking each of these steps individually, the first is simply to determine what is present at the site — for example, are features present, what types of artifacts are present, from what period does the site date? This represents the collection of basic, and essential, information concerning the site and the types of research contributions it can offer. Obviously there is no reason to propose research on eighteenth century plantation development if

only early twentieth century ceramics are present. Nor is it perhaps appropriate to explore questions focused on subsistence if no faunal materials are present. This first step is typically addressed through the survey investigations, often with supporting documentation provided by historic research.

Next, it is important to understand the historic context of the site — what is the history of the project area and of the specific locality? Research questions must be posed with an understanding of this context and the context helps to direct the focus of research. The development of a historic context can be a lengthy process. Fortunately Rowland et al. (1996) have recently completed an overview of the Beaufort area's history up to the Civil War and this provides an impressive context for many investigations of this type.

Associated with the development of the context is the formation of research questions ***applicable to the site, its context, and its data sets.*** Often this research will grow out of previous projects in the area. Certainly topics of exceptional interest continue to be the examination of eighteenth and nineteenth century plantations in the Beaufort District. Recently, we are also beginning to distinguish between the size and complexity of the various plantations found on the landscape, recognizing that not all plantations are "equal" or present the same archaeological assemblage (see, for example, Adams et al. 1995; Kennedy and Roberts 1993; and Trinkley and Hacker 1996).

Next it is essential to compare the data sets with the research questions — the information necessary to address the research questions must be present at the site, else posing the question is meaningless in the evaluative process. Focusing on small projects, it may be more appropriate to concentrate on only one or perhaps two research questions and devote the energy necessary to fully explore them, then to propose a range of questions which can be only superficially explored with the data sets or resources available.

Finally, Townsend et al. recognize that not all research questions are of equal importance and that only those of fairly high value should be considered in the evaluation of National Register eligibility. Of all the steps this may be the most difficult to address. Some research questions proposed may seem pedestrian. Our society has viewed history as great events happening to great individuals. Many view architectural significance with the same jaundiced eye — significance being equated with white columns and famous architects. And certainly if the available archaeological studies of low country plantations are examined, there is a similar bias toward big plantations with relatively grand lifeways. Curiously, we know much less about the common planter or yeoman farmer — and their probably more vernacular architecture — than we do about the famous or the high style. Some historians have referred to the common person as the "invisible person." Others have offered some understanding using the concept of the "marginal man." It is consequently important to understand that significance of archaeological research questions is not judged from the perspective of the wealth, or power, or prestige of the historic persons involved. It is judged from the perspective of what the research can tell us about the past that traditional historical research cannot.

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites actually being nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluation process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation where only, typically, one discrete site is being considered. In the case of survey evaluations some modifications of the approach seem reasonable, if not actually essential. Regardless, the approach advocated by Townsend et al. encourages researchers to carefully consider, and justify, their recommendations regarding National Register eligibility.

Beyond the goals outlined and the methodology for reaching them discussed here, no further research questions were proposed for this initial study. It was essentially explorative and explicative, attempting to help the Beaufort School District better understand the archaeological

resources they might likely encounter on this particular parcel.

Implemented Methodology

The proposed methodology changed little with the initiation of the field study. We did discover that the only open area amenable to a surface survey was found along the northeastern edge of the tract, where it had been somewhat disturbed by the construction of a movie theater on an adjacent tract. This same area was also somewhat disturbed by logging operations (and in fact about a half acre had been clear cut and was still littered with downed timber and debris). These areas provided the opportunity for a limited pedestrian survey and, in fact, some evidence of a prehistoric site was encountered (and is discussed below).

A pedestrian survey was also conducted in an effort to identify tabby reported for the site by Dr. Larry Rowland, a history professor at USC-Beaufort. We understand from David S. Youmans, with Beaufort Surveying that several previous efforts to locate these remains have been made unsuccessfully. Our initial conversations with Dr. Rowland were used to focus our investigation in the northeast corner of the tract. The survey consisted of walking approximately parallel north-south lines spaced anywhere from five to 15 feet apart, depending on the nature of the vegetation. The pathways were judgmentally probed, meaning that a probe was used to investigate areas that were heavily vegetated. This initial attempt was unsuccessful and Dr. Rowland was again consulted in an effort to obtain a more precise location for the tabby. With this additional information, keyed to a dead but standing live oak tree, a second survey was attempted. This survey used what might be considered a concentric dog leash survey technique, with the survey expanding outward in concentric circles from the area thought to be most promising. Again, a probe was used to allow the investigations to "feel into" heavy vegetation clumps. No tabby was found on this second effort.

The vast majority of the tract, however, required a shovel test survey. A series of 15 east-west transects, spaced 100 feet apart, were established to cover the tract. Shovel tests were excavated on these transects at 100 foot intervals. This interval was used even in the central portion of the tract, where low, wet soils were in evidence. The reason for this intensity was the previously reported tabby. If there was any structure in the survey tract we hoped that the more intensive survey would identify architectural remains (nails or window glass) or domestic materials (ceramics or bottle glass), even if we were unable to identify any above ground tabby.

These shovel tests were approximately 1-foot square and were excavated to subsoil, typically a yellow sand. All fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh and the holes were backfilled afterwards. The transects were numbered sequentially from south to north, with the individual shovel tests numbered, along each transect, from west to east (Figure 10). As a result of this methodology 169 shovel tests were excavated (or about 4 per acre).

In addition, closer interval shovel tests were also excavated at two of the three identified sites and additional judgmental tests were excavated at the third site.

Identified Sites

As a result of the study three archaeological sites were identified on the school tract. One was found only through shovel testing, while the other two were observed on the surface (and in fact, one produced no subsurface remains).

38BU1686

This multicomponent site represents a scatter of Middle Woodland prehistoric remains associated with late nineteenth and early twentieth century historic remains on the northeastern corner of the study tract. The prehistoric materials were limited to the surface collection along the dirt road and open ground associated with recent nearby construction activities, while the prehistoric remains were found both on the surface and in shovel tests.

The central UTM for the site is E532060

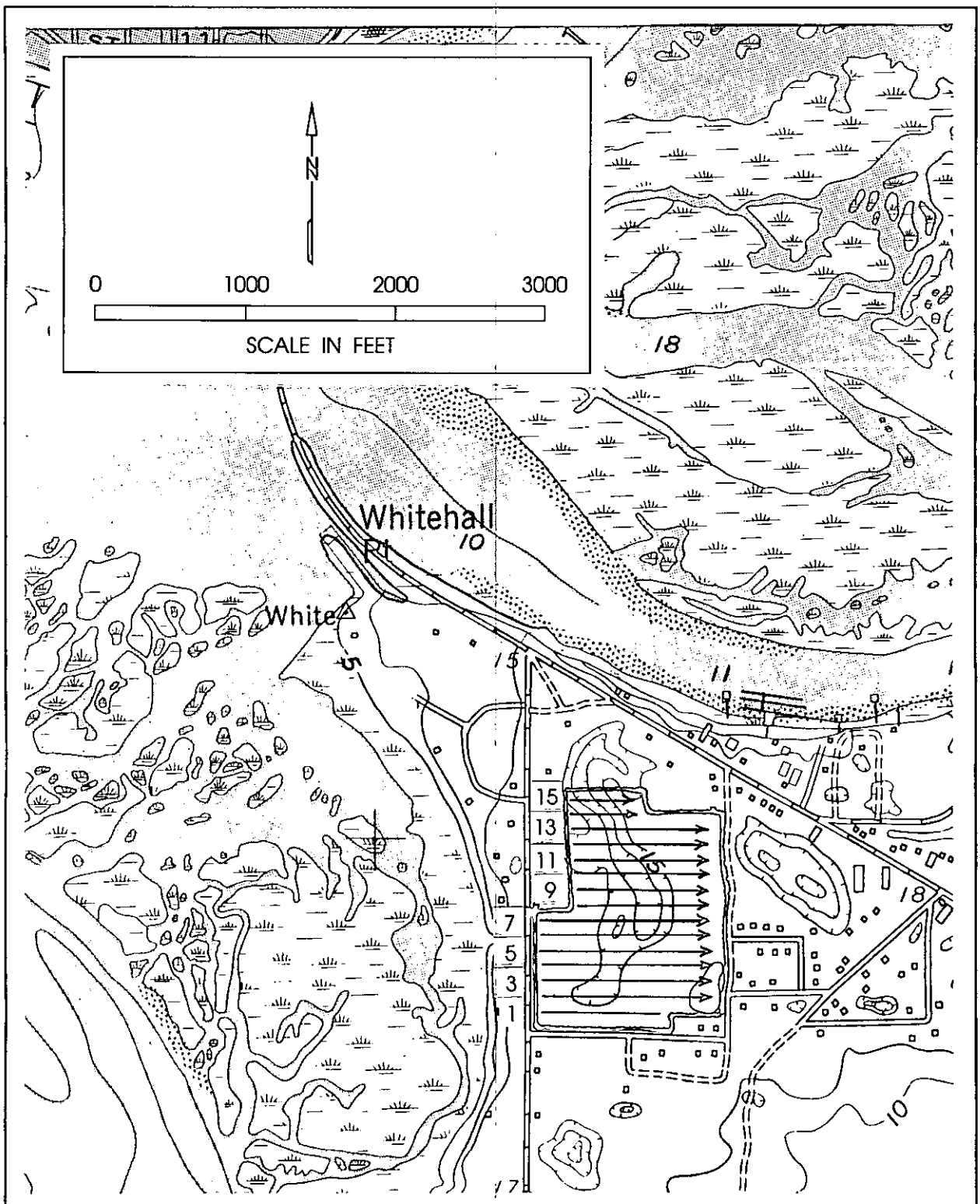

Figure 10. Survey transects on the proposed Beaufort High School tract.

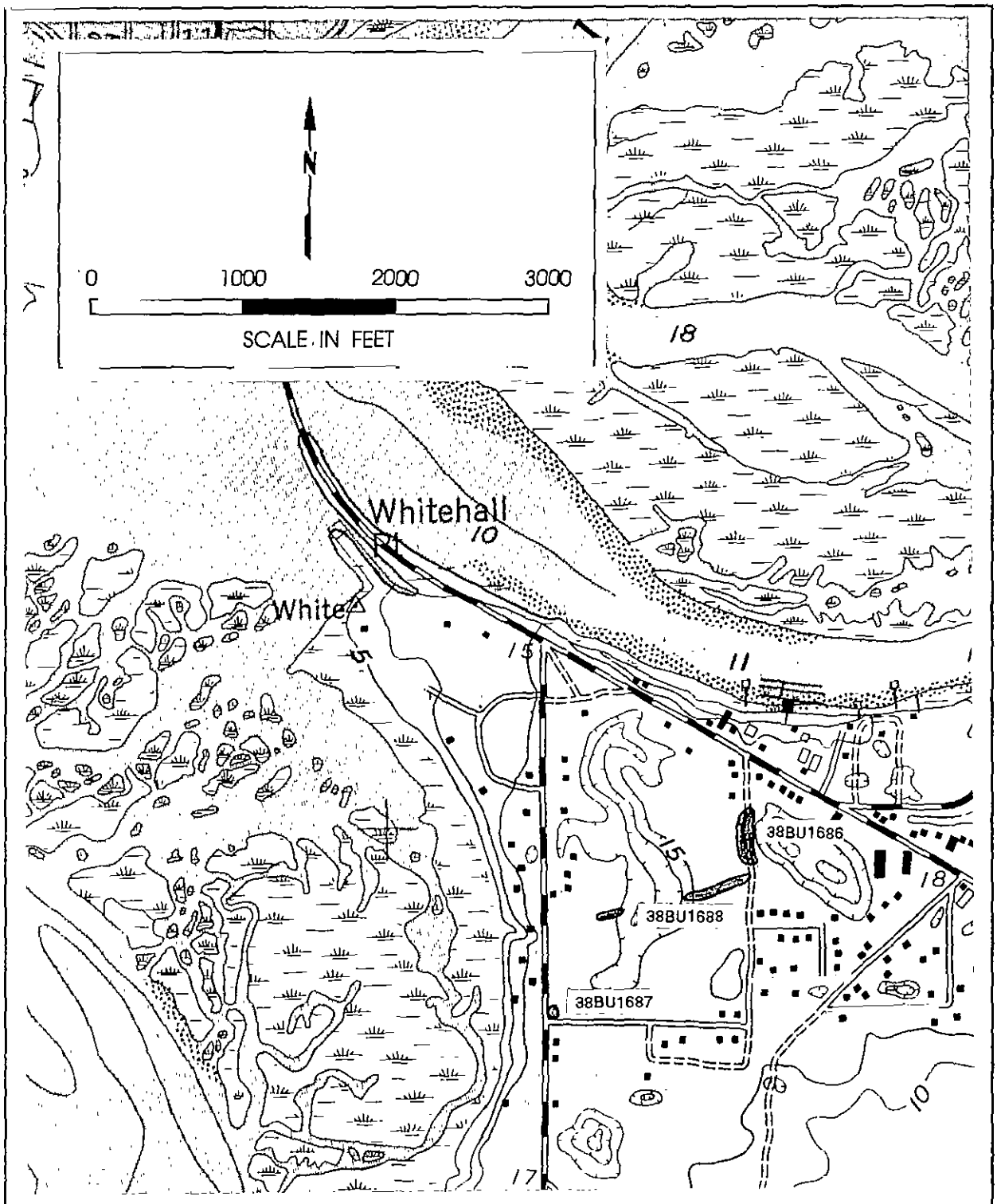

Figure 11. Identified sites on the proposed Beaufort High School tract.

N3586490 and the materials were recovered in an area measuring about 600 feet north-south by 100 feet east-west (Figures 11 and 12). The site is situated on what appears to be sand ridge bisected by the property line and associated dirt road, with the topography sloping to the east, just beyond the site boundaries.

Historic materials, including concrete fragments, tin, pottery, and other refuse were first observed on the surface, and later obtained from a series of 12 shovel tests bisecting the site north-south, on the west side of the dirt road. Surface materials from this site, however, are mixed with modern trash from neighboring houses, so we attempted to limit our collection to materials which appeared pre-1950.

These remains are probably associated with a "cottage" reported to have been situated in this area by Dr. Larry Rowland (personal communication 1997). No intact archaeological evidence for the structure was found and Dr. Rowland confirmed that the house had been removed. This removal may account for some of the surface disturbance present on the site, although the evidence of logging and some associated rutted may be the result of nearby construction activities impinging on this property.

Vegetation in the survey area included pine and mixed hardwoods which were fairly open, exhibiting a low understory of herbaceous plants and vines. Surface visibility, except for larger items and trash piles, was limited.

The shovel tests revealed a fairly common natural stratigraphy of about 0.6 to 0.8 foot of brown sand overlying a yellow sand subsoil. This profile is, in general, consistent with the Wando Series soils common to this area. Shovel tests along the road edge, however, revealed more disturbance, often having upwards of 0.3 foot of mottled spoil over the brown sand A horizon. This spoil zone decreased to the west, suggesting that it may be associated with the cutting of the dirt road through the sand ridge.

Prehistoric materials collected from the surface along the road cut were two Wilmington Cord Marked sherds and three small sherds. These are characteristic of the Middle Woodland Period in the Beaufort area. Historic materials from the vicinity of the road cut include one yellowware ceramic, one undecorated whiteware ceramic, one blue transfer printed whiteware ceramic, two stonewares, one light green glass fragment, one fragment of clear glass, and one flower pot fragment. Recovered from in the woods were two fragments of a polychrome hand pained whiteware bowl (possibly a chamber pot). This vessel included the marker's mark, "PARIS WHITE/CRESCENT/POTTERY CO./WARRANTED" with a lion in the center. This particular mark dates from perhaps as early as 1892 and was no longer used in 1903 (Lehner 1988:114).

Of the fifteen shovel tests within the site boundaries, four (26.7%), all on Transect 16, produced artifacts. Shovel test 2 produced two light green glass fragments, one clear glass fragment, and a plastic doll joint, probably a portion of the original model of the GI Joe toy). Shovel test 7 yielded seven clear glass fragments and one unidentifiable nail fragment. Shovel test 9 produced two polychrome stamped whiteware ceramics, one light green glass fragment, two clear glass fragments, and one fragment of clear plastic. From ST 10 three fragments of clear glass were recovered.

These artifacts are consistent with a structure from the first quarter of the twentieth century, although at least some of the remains (such as the plastic doll part) may be intrusive from the nearby houses). It seems likely that these remains were associated with the "cottage" reported to have been on the site. Certainly it is appropriate to be concerned with historic settlement from this period. There is relatively little information concerning the early twentieth century occupation of Lady's Island, prior to the development of a bridge linking the island with the "outside" world. Nevertheless, the data sets present are limited to this sparse distribution of material. We identified no architectural remains or subsurface features. Nor were faunal materials present in the assemblage. We were unable to identify refuse disposal areas specific to this site.

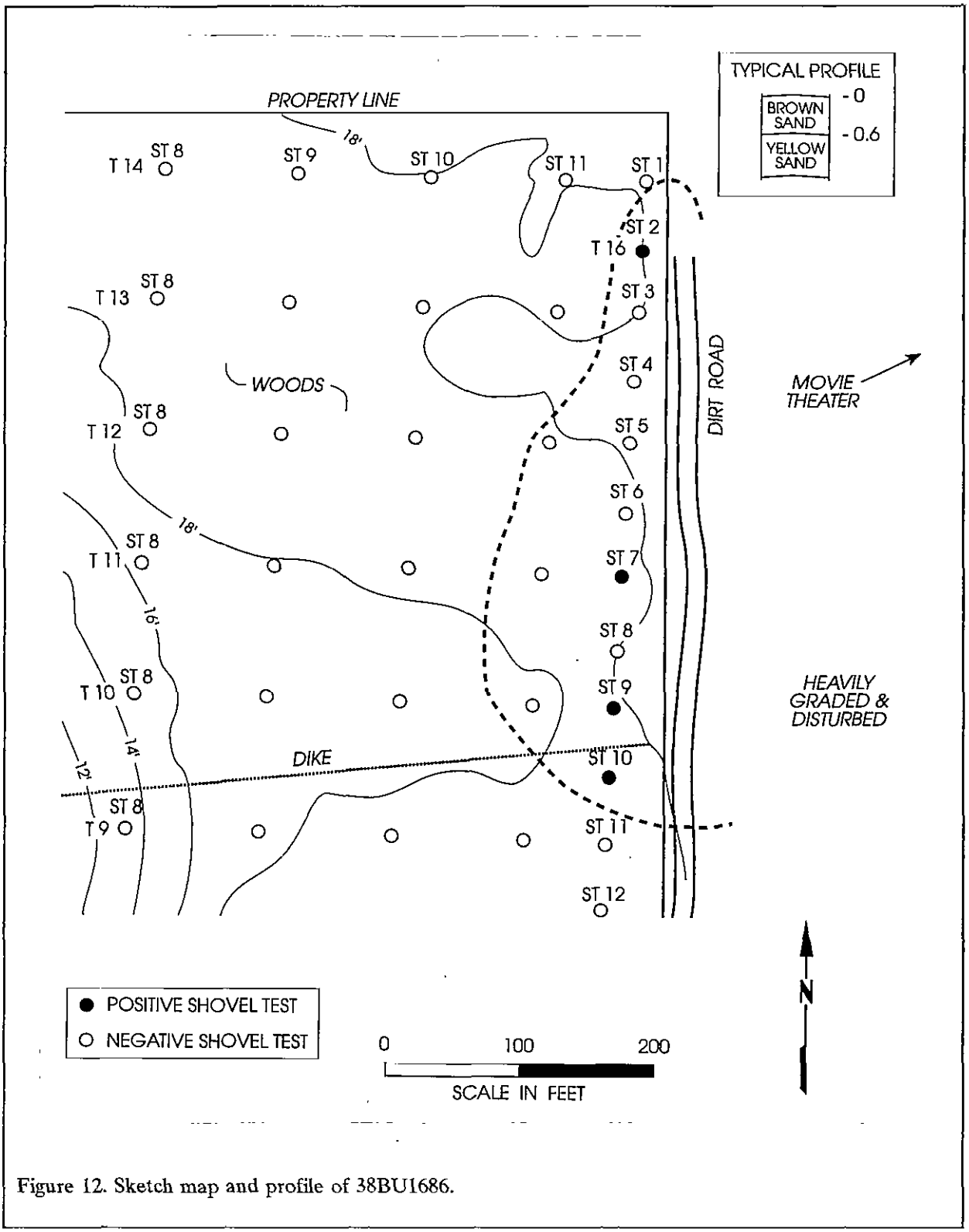

Figure 12. Sketch map and profile of 38BU1686.

With this in mind, it seems highly unlikely that this site could address the research questions which the site's context raises — there simply is not sufficient integrity to allow the examination of the site or to produce meaningful information.

Likewise, the prehistoric remains are of special interest. There are very few "pure" Wilmington phase sites investigated in the low country and such sites could produce very significant information helping us to better understand this phase and its temporal and cultural association with other phases. Yet, the site possesses virtually no data sets and lacks the integrity to allow the investigation of appropriate research questions.

38BU1687

This site represents a very thin scatter of early to middle nineteenth century historic remains on the southwestern corner of the study tract. These materials were limited to two finds in two different shovel tests on the immediate edge of the property. It is, however, possible that the site extends off the survey parcel to the south, southwest, or west. Given the historical research, we believe that there may be additional remains associated with this site to the west or southwest.

The central UTM for the site is E531670 N3586100 and the materials were recovered in an area measuring about 50 feet north-south by 25 feet east-west (Figures 11 and 13). The site is situated on what appears to be sand terrace gradually sloping to the west, toward the Beaufort River. Its exact topographic setting is difficult to ascertain since Meridian Road bisected the terrace, and possibly the site. The site elevation is about 17 feet AMSL.

The site area is heavily vegetated in pines and mixed hardwoods, and has a fairly dense understory of vines (Figure 4 was taken in the area just north of 38BU1687 where the vegetation is similar). No surface remains were encountered and only two of the six (25%) shovel tests produced material. Shovel test 1 on Transect 1 yielded a brass button (South's Type 26) with a cross hatch design on its face. The reverse was stamped "EXTRA FEIN [sic]." A shovel test 50 feet to the south produced one fragment of green glass. These remains are indicative of a nineteenth century occupation, although little more can be made of the assemblage.

The data sets from this site are exceedingly sparse. Only two artifacts were recovered. No features or evidence of features were found. There is no associated evidence of structural remains such as brick or mortar. In addition, the presence of Meridian Road to the west and Youmans Drive to the south provide artificial boundaries which may have resulted in site disruption or damage. The previous historic research provides a fairly clear context for the site and we believe that these remains are likely associated with what appears to be known as Orange Grove Plantation. Likewise, this context is based on our understanding of Lady's Island presenting relatively poor agricultural lands and the proprietors of the tracts being fairly small owners. Clearly this site can address a wide range of research questions appropriate to small planters and the nature of their operations, as well as the lifeways of their slaves. Yet, it seems unlikely that 38BU1687, because of its overall lack of integrity and sparse data sets, can support meaningful research into these important research topics.

38BU1688

The final site identified for this tract is 38BU1688. This is a landscape feature — an earthen dike running east-northeast by west-southwest through the parcel. No cultural materials were associated with the feature. The central UTM for the site is E531670 N3586100.

The site is actually recorded as two segments, with one on either side of the low slough or sink in the center of the survey tract. The western portion of the dike is about 150 feet in length, while the eastern dike is about 450 feet in length. On the eastern side there is a ditch associated with the dike in a few areas, although it is fairly indistinct. At its base the dike is about 15 feet in width, gradually narrowing as it approaches the central depression on the tract (Figures 11 and 14). Likewise, the maximum height is about 3 feet, although the dike tends to decline toward the depression. Where present, the ditch is only 3 to 4 feet in width and about 1.0 to 1.5 feet in depth.

Several judgmental shovel tests revealed a grayish-brown sandy loam consistent through the

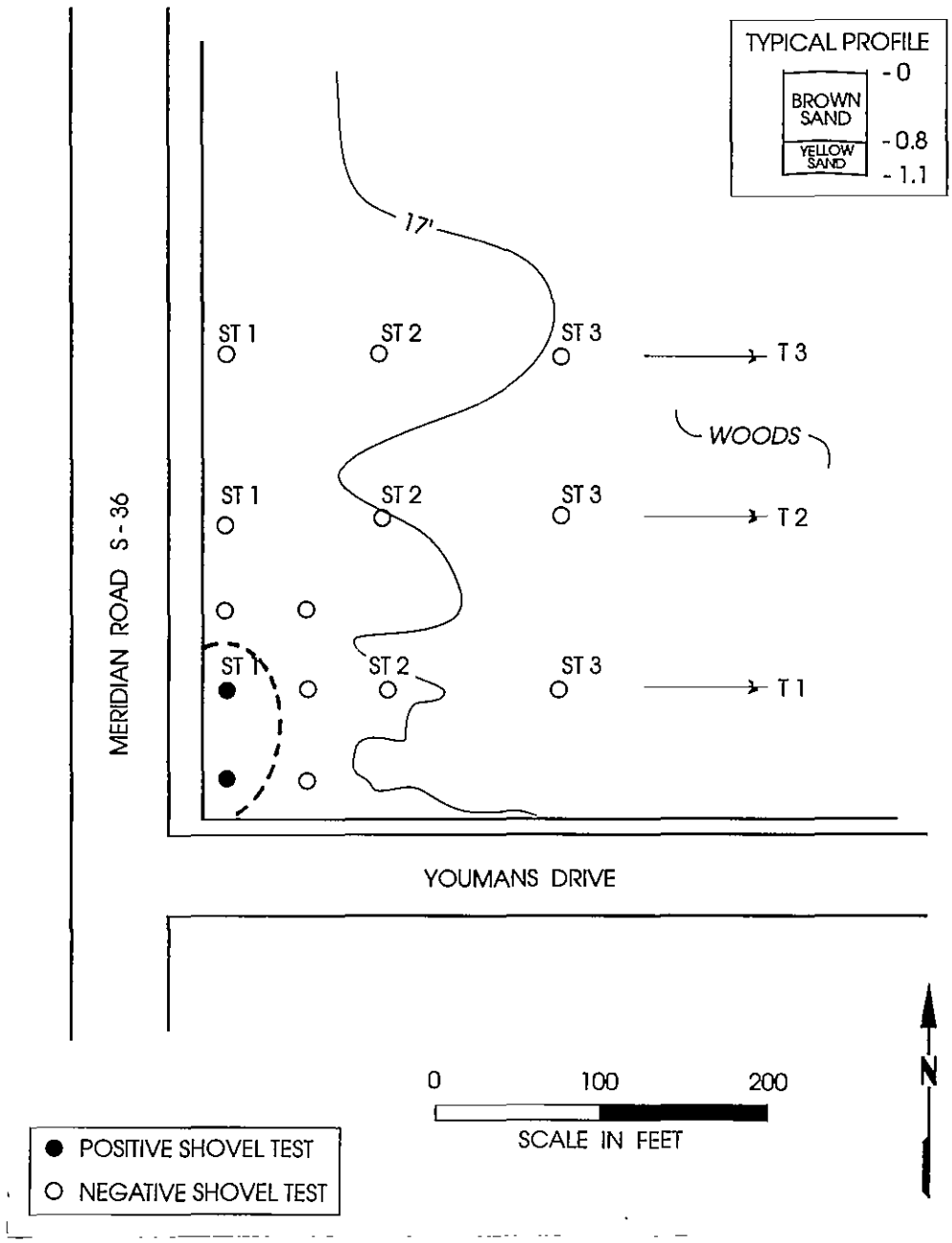

Figure 13. Sketch map and profile of 38BU1687.

Figure 14. View of the dike at 38BU1688, looking to the south.

profile. No evidence of basket-loading was obvious, although the exposed profiles were very small. The fill was screened and no artifacts were encountered. This, however, is not particularly surprising since the tract produced very few cultural remains.

It seems unlikely that this ditch is associated with any water control function, since it appears that the planters considered these sinks worthless. It is more likely that this represents a field or property boundary. Such features were common at eighteenth and nineteenth century plantations, although they are often destroyed by more modern developments. This feature would likely contribute to the significance of an intact landscape (in other words be a component in a much larger whole), but it does not appear in its own right to be significant. The site is limited to the one data set — the presence of the dike.

Hog Farm Remains

During the survey, we identified what appears to be an activity or processing area associated with the property when it was used as a hog farm in the mid-twentieth century (Larry Rowland, personal communication 1997). In the northwest corner of the survey area we encountered the remains of pens, constructed on hog wire, wood, and tin roofing, which probably served as a temporary holding area. About 40 feet away was a concrete pad and catch basin about 2 feet wide, 16 feet long, and 0.5 foot deep, that was probably used to catch the blood and offal resulting from the slaughtering of the hogs. Nearby was a brick chimney and fire pit which had once included a 4 foot diameter kettle, probably used to scald the carcass to help remove the hair after slaughter.

This cluster of features was not given an archaeological site number since it appears fairly modern (i.e., with the past 50 years). We are mentioning its presence, however, since such features are rapidly vanishing from the Beaufort landscape and deserve recordation.

CONCLUSIONS

Nature of the Sites

Archaeological site 38BU1686 includes both a prehistoric and historic component. The prehistoric component includes only Wilmington pottery, typical of a Middle Woodland time frame, although not frequently found without the inclusion of other types of prehistoric material. A "pure" Wilmington phase site would be of considerable research interest. Nevertheless, the prehistoric component has been heavily damaged by adjacent construction and land modification activities and is identified by only surface materials. Efforts to identify additional prehistoric subsurface remains were unsuccessful.

The historic component at 38BU1686 dates as early as the very late nineteenth century or the early twentieth century. The recovered materials are found in both surface and subsurface contexts, although clearly the surface indications of the site are somewhat stronger and better defined. The site, according to Dr. Larry Rowland, represents the remains of a "cottage." Structural remains are unclear — there are some concrete blocks and similar materials, but it is impossible to determine if these represent portions of the original structure or have been dumped on-site. The determination is made more complex by the fairly common "modern" trash which is spread across the site from both nearby structures and the recent construction activity east of the bordering dirt road.

This site is evaluated as lacking any prehistoric or historic context. The mixture of "modern" and "archaeological" trash is almost impossible to sort. The shovel tests parallel to the dirt road revealed consistent damage or disturbance. The site simply lacks the ability to address the broad range of research questions appropriate for a Wilmington site (typology of pottery, subsistence, presence of structural remains, association with landforms, or variety of associated artifacts) or an early twentieth century site on Lady's Island (small farm lifeways, rural refuse disposal techniques, site formation processes, or material wealth and status of the occupants).

In addition, careful examination of this site and its surroundings failed to reveal any early nineteenth century or late eighteenth century material (which might reasonably be associated with the purported tabby remains).

Consequently, this site is recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register. No additional archaeological or historical investigations of this site are recommended.

Archaeological site 38BU1687 produced only a very small assemblage of late eighteenth or early nineteenth century material (two artifacts). Based on the admittedly limited shovel test data, the material recovered may be part of a larger site which extends primarily off the study tract to the south, southwest, or west. And, in fact, our historical research suggests that the main plantation settlement for Orange Grove may be situated about 150 feet to the west, along the marsh edge overlooking the Beaufort River.

Regardless, the identified remains, comprising the only elements of the site identified on the proposed school property, are recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. No additional research is recommended for this site. Future development of the Beaufort River frontage, however, should recognize that the probable presence of Orange Grove Plantation.

Site 38BU1688 represents a landscape feature given an archaeological site number so its presence, and location, could be documented in a meaningful fashion. The feature appears to be a ditch and dike system running approximately southwest-northeast up to both the east and west

edges of the low slough or sink in the middle of the survey tract. The dike is more pronounced, being about 10 feet in width at its base and about 3 feet in maximum height (with the height declining toward the slough or sink). The associated ditch is largely unrecognizable. Where present it appears to be about 3 feet in width and only a foot in depth. The dike and dike are such a minor landform that they were not even picked up by the topographic survey of the parcel.

Several judgmental shovel tests excavated on or beside the dike reveal deep grayish-brown sands with no obvious basket loading. No "artifacts" were recovered from the fill.

It seems likely that this feature represents either a water control device or, more likely, a property boundary. Such ditches and dikes were common features on eighteenth and nineteenth century plantations and are even still present at a number of modern plantation tracts in the low country. They are, obviously, less common as developments fill them in and modern property lines cross them. While recordation is important, we do not believe that this site can address significant landscape-related questions in historic archaeology since it is essentially isolated from its historic context. Consequently, we recommend this site as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. No further work is recommended at the site.

Recommendations

All three of the identified sites are recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register. As previously discussed, no additional work is recommended for any of these sites.

The hog farm remains, while providing interesting evidence of the more rural past in the Beaufort and Lady's Island area, are not at least 50 years old and we do not believe they are appropriate for consideration as an archaeological site. No further investigations of these remains are recommended.

Likewise, a number of efforts to located the purported tabby on the study tract have failed. This should in no way be construed to mean that the tabby did not, or possibly even does not, exist. The only intent is that it could not be located and consequently cannot be assessed. We should, however, point out that we failed to identify any historic remains of the appropriate time period which might have been associated with this tabby. This suggests (but again, does not prove) that the tabby may have been relocated to this area from somewhere else.

Regardless, we recommend that the Beaufort County School District include a provision in its contract documents for sitework that should any archaeological remains be encountered, and especially if any concentrations of shell or tabby be found, that work in the area be suspended until the find can be evaluated by a professional archaeologist or the State Historic Preservation Office.

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